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## EDUCATIONAL ADVERTISING

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Inasmuch as parents furnish the raw material for the teachers' experiments, bear most of the expense of conducting those experiments, and are forced to live with the results, it seems only just that they should be given reasonable consideration by those who manage our schools. To be sure, parents are considered, and to a certain extent "catered to," by both colleges and public schools. In the nature of the case they must be, because they pay the bills. Certainly in the majority of our schools, however, it would seem that no intelligent effort is being made to bring the parent into a real understanding of and sympathy with the actual school work.

A considerable portion of the pupils in our public schools are, of course, the children of parents who have not had a liberal or even a common-school education. These parents send their children to school because they hope for their children better things than they themselves have had, or, too often perhaps, for the reason that the law requires it. This is as it should be. In fact, the percentage of children of any given grade who are receiving more advanced instruction than their parents ever received may be taken as a fair index of the real growth of our public-school system.

This very condition, however, creates the disadvantage of a lack of common understanding and co-operation between the school and the home. It would seem that this ought to place clearly

before school authorities the duty of educating not only the student but the parent to an appreciation of the value and importance of the sort of training for which the schools stand. Quite the opposite policy is commonly pursued. It almost seems at times as if teachers regarded the average parent as a hopeless person, quite incapable of interest in or understanding of the real aims of education: an individual to be cajoled into patronage by an array of non-essentials and extraneous activities.

All too often, in fact, student activities are encouraged, or at least permitted, by teachers who fully realize their uselessness, or even harmfulness, because such activities are supposed to interest the parents. Take, for instance, the high-school graduation, or "commencement," as it is now styled. Teachers and school officials generally are pretty well convinced of the injuriousness of this function, so far as the students are concerned. Teachers realize that this annual ceremony, with its attendant array of class pins, class yells, class books, class plays, and class receptions, is hardly beneficial to the student. The expense is greater than many families ought to bear; the final term of the "Senior" year, when the student is best able to make most progress and to get real enjoyment from his studies, is almost entirely given over to preparation for the grand event. So much emphasis on the end of a course, too, cannot fail to make more prominent the fact that there is a break, and so to reduce the number of those going to college. Its effects are still more pernicious in the grammar schools, where the solemnity of the occasion and a beribboned diploma lend emphasis to the fact that a course has been "finished."

Yet all this is tolerated by teachers because the "parents" expect it. Do not teachers understand parents well enough to know that they will appear in large numbers at any sort of function in which their children are concerned, no matter how slight their approval? Again, has the possibility never occurred to our teachers that parents may attend such displays because it is the only opportunity offered for getting at all in touch with the schools?

It should not be inferred, however, that it is always, or perhaps usually, against the better judgment of the teacher that these spectacular activities are carried on. Often teachers seem only

too willing to lend their own energies to the encouragement and execution of these activities. Sometimes it seems teachers consider these things more important than the work they are hired to do.

Some time ago a teacher in an eastern high school argued in defense of school "plays" that pupils and parents derived therefrom "common interest and mutual sympathy." She admitted that the plays were not, in her school, the kind that would be of real value to the pupils. "They were unfinished, too hurriedly prepared, and not even well memorized." Yet she found their beneficial effects in the "mutual sympathy" gained by the pupils and parents. It may be possible to consider seriously, as a source of mutual sympathy between father and son, a cheap drama by some unknown writer, even though the father be a spectator and the son play the leading rôle in an "unfinished manner," his part "hurriedly prepared and not even well memorized."

Might not some more firm bond of mutual sympathy, however, be found, if an equal amount of time and effort were expended by teachers, pupils, and parents, in some way in which the parents could be brought to realize the nature and importance of the work of the school? Perhaps at the same time the question of the co-operation of the school and the home would become less vexing. At least our high schools would be presented to the public in some other guise than as centers for the encouragement of third-rate amateur theatricals. The present methods of keeping the public in touch with schools, by means of activities having at best but a very slight connection with even the less important phases of education, savor too much of misrepresentation.

Our colleges are by no means exempt from this type of misrepresentation. Recently the writer visited one of the best of the smaller colleges in the Mississippi Valley. He was shown a collection of books, the library of a distinguished man of letters, purchased at considerable expense and occupying a prominent place in the library. The books were interesting as curiosities and because of their association with a leader of thought in the last century. For the average undergraduate they were absolutely worthless. "Great thing to show parents," said the Latin professor, with a wave of his hand.

The writer, with several fellow-students, was selected some time ago to inflict a "thesis" upon the audience at the commencement exercises of a small eastern college. He protested. The essay had been written on a line which happened to be his hobby that year. The subject was too big for anyone to handle, even an undergraduate. Even to its author the paper appeared incapable of interesting the people who would be crowded into uncomfortable church pews in the middle of a hot June day. "No one would listen." "Everyone would be bored." All this was admitted by members of the faculty. "We know it will not interest your classmates," a patient professor explained; "the alumni won't listen either; in fact, they will make so much noise in the back of the hall that no one else can hear. But this isn't for them, anyway; this is for the parents. They will listen, and, though they can't understand, they will say, 'That boy was worth educating.'" Such is the esteem in which some of our college professors hold their patrons.

Colleges are, however, a bit aside from our theme. Many colleges are private corporations anyway; and perhaps we ought not to protest if their advertising methods are not more scrupulously honest than those of other corporations. But we have a right to expect something better from our public schools. Our schools are, either intentionally or otherwise, expending a considerable amount of time and energy in trying to interest the public, that is, in advertising. They should continue to do so. Schools can grow in real influence only as increasing numbers of citizens come to realize and appreciate the importance of their work. Why, then, should all the effort to interest parents in school work be expended in fields in no way connected with that work?

The business of the school, as a school, is to teach. As a body of young people it should, perhaps, have social and athletic interests, but as a school its business is found, and its interests should be found, in the studies of the curriculum. Then why is its advertising not found there also? The present situation is not unlike that of a firm manufacturing a standard line of hardware and cutlery, who, while striving to continue their old line of business, put all their

advertising into a fancy line of tissue-paper specialties and post-cards for the Christmas trade. It is, in fact, a misrepresentation by our school-teachers of the line of goods they are supposed to be carrying; and if the schools could be brought under the pure-food law the package would be properly labeled. Bogus advertising does not pay in the long run in the commercial world. Is it certain that it really pays in the educational world?

It is not the writer's purpose to enter here into the question of the relative values of cultural and industrial education. It is merely offered as a suggestion that the rapidly increasing popularity of industrial and technical schools may be largely due to the fact that the attention of outsiders is called to the real work of the school, rather than to unrelated activities, so that the public generally is brought to feel that here is a school which is doing work that it is not ashamed to talk about. Might it not be more profitable, as it would certainly be more honest, for our teachers of cultural subjects to insist on the importance of their own work, as compared with class histories, trips to Washington, and amateur dramatics?

Such a condition as the present must have its attendant evils. It fosters lack of sympathy between the schools and the homes; thus making the work of the school harder through lack of co-operation. It gives the impression that the actual work of the school is not very important, that it is not considered important even by those who have it in charge. Thus there is bred contempt for the schools, which too often prevents the larger appropriations that the schools might have and ought to have, and restrains parents from making the effort they might make to keep their children in school.

It is natural, however, that the injurious effects of such a system should be most serious and far-reaching upon the teaching force itself. Such persistent ignoring of the real work of the teacher cannot fail to react unfavorably upon the quality of the teaching. If what the teacher is hired to do never in any way comes under the observation of outsiders, the public is forced to judge its teachers wholly from the extraneous activities carried on for its benefit. And teachers, being human and in search of popularity and a raise

in salary, will bend their energies in the direction of the spectacular advertising activities.

What the effect of an opposite policy might be may perhaps be judged from its results in a slightly different field of educational effort. It is pretty generally recognized that the work of the football coach, considered merely as teaching, is far superior to the work of either the college professor or the public-school teacher. Is not a potent reason for this found in the fact that the standing of the football coach is determined just exactly by the results of his teaching? He is rated, not by what he himself can do in some outside activity, as in the case of the college professor; nor by what he can make his pupils do in some outside activity, as in the case of the public-school teacher; but by what he can make his pupils do in the particular line he is supposed to be teaching. Strangely enough, he alone is judged by the actual results of the work for which all three are hired.

## ENGLISH LITERATURE AND THE COLLEGE FRESHMAN

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Until recently we have accepted with little hesitation the assumption that a man with a college education might boast of particular intellectual attainments; probably he would have a good, usable knowledge of some definite line of work, but undoubtedly he must have acquired a background of general culture from which would emerge a wealth of facts and associated ideas to enrich the experience of the passing years. Of late, however, we have been forced to question both clauses of this assumption. On no one point, for example, has there been more open and irate criticism of collegiate education than in regard to the knowledge of the English language and literature possessed by the average college graduate of today. A partial explanation of this condition is to be found in recent changes in college policies, but a portion of the blame must undoubtedly be laid at the door of the preparatory school.

In breaking away from the rigid requirements of the old college curriculum there has evidently been difficulty in avoiding the opposite extreme; the university that now requires no Latin beyond Cicero, and no mathematics beyond plane geometry, has tended also to eliminate all required work in English literature, on the ground that the secondary schools have given to that subject a sufficient proportion of their time. The results of this policy have been unsatisfactory to many, both within and without the college classroom. There are indications, however, that the pendulum is beginning to swing back: the murmured protests are continually growing stronger against the commercialization of education, overspecialization, and carrying into the university the limitations of the trade school. Old alumni are realizing that their sons come back from Alma Mater, glib and self-sufficient, but lacking some of those invaluable acquirements which the college had made possible for the older generation. And in many cases

the colleges themselves are ready to question or even to condemn the feebleness of their fight against the unwitting crudity of the student body. It is noteworthy that in an institution like Tufts College, the faculty of the School of Engineering should recently have expressed itself as feeling the necessity of more work in English in its engineering course.

Interested by these signs of the times, and incidentally depressed by the lack of previous training apparent in a college class in Freshman English, I planned one day an experiment which should be a partial test of the knowledge of English literature with which these students had entered college, and raise the question of how far the college can safely intrust to the high school at present the greater share in the teaching of English literature. In the beginning I was moved more by curiosity than by scientific inquiry, and I did not give to the details of my plan such careful deliberation as I should have given had I foreseen the interesting character of the results. The experiment was as follows: To a class made up of fifty Freshman girls of average age and training in a small college of the Middle West I gave, first, the following list of names chosen from among the greatest masters of English literature since Chaucer:

George Eliot	Thackeray
Chaucer	Fielding
Dr. Johnson	Wordsworth
Shakespeare	Rossetti
Coleridge	Spenser
Milton	Matthew Arnold
Byron	Browning
Ben Jonson	Dickens
Pope	Jane Austen
Scott	Tennyson
Dryden	Keats

In connection with this list, I asked two things: (1) the half-century in which the writer lived; and (2) the title of any one of his writings. When the students had completed this work I gave another list, of the following titles:

Pendennis (Thackeray)  
The Blessed Damozel (Rossetti)  
Canterbury Tales (Chaucer)

- The Mill on the Floss (George Eliot)
- Lycidas (Milton)
- The Faerie Queene (Spenser)
- Tintern Abbey (Wordsworth)
- The Essay on Man (Pope)
- Christabel (Coleridge)
- Adonais (Shelley)
- The Rape of the Lock (Pope)
- The Ode to the West Wind (Shelley)
- Childe Harold (Byron)
- My Last Duchess (Browning)
- Ode on the Intimations of Immortality (Wordsworth)
- Alexander's Feast (Dryden)
- The Eve of St. Agnes (Keats)
- Sohrab and Rustum (Arnold)
- Ode on a Grecian Urn (Keats)
- In Memoriam (Tennyson)
- The Prisoner of Chillon (Byron)
- Rabbi Ben Ezra (Browning)
- Idylls of the King (Tennyson)
- King Lear (Shakespeare)

Then I asked the class to give on the other side of the paper, and without consulting the first list, the author of each of these English masterpieces. These papers were collected at once, and the reading of them, an hour later, moved me first to mirth, and then to sadness, and finally to sober thought. The results of the two tests are tabulated in the accompanying charts, A representing the answers to the first test, and B, to the second.

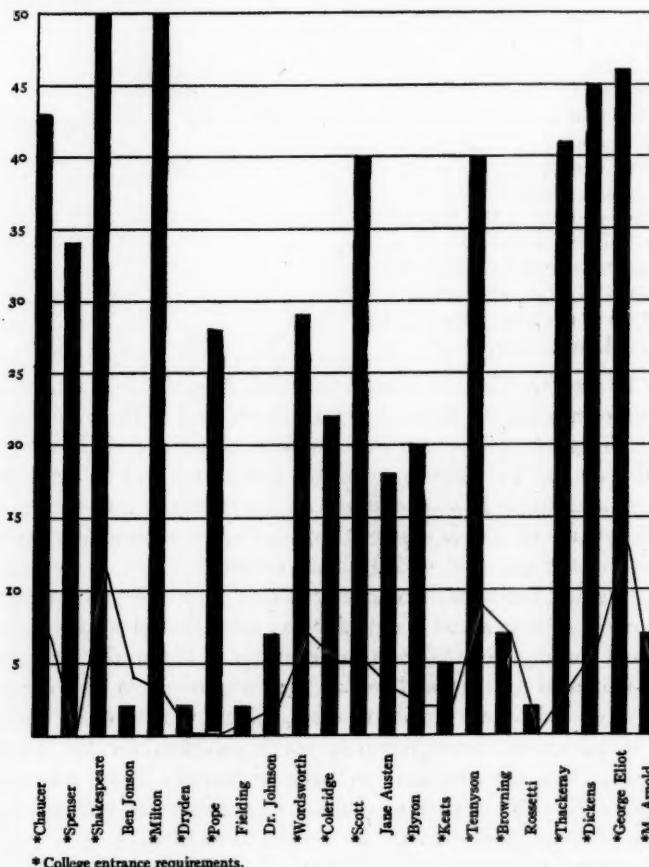
In judging these results one should bear three things in mind: first, my questions asked merely for an association of author and title, not for any knowledge of the contents of the work; second, these names of authors and works, the commonplaces of literary history, were, in the majority of cases, taken from the established lists of college-entrance requirements in English for the year 1911-12; third, the question on chronology asked only for a broad approximation to the date of writing, such as seemed inherent in any understanding of the work in relation to its time.

A survey of these results suggests to me certain important conclusions regarding the teaching of English in the high school and in the college, in connection with the average general culture

of the student body. In the first place, as regards secondary education the charts show two conditions: that the teaching of

CHART A

Showing the percentage of students who were able to give the title of any one of the author's writings. The curve shows the percentage who could give the half-century in which the author lived.



English in the high schools is failing in certain things which it should be expected to accomplish; and that other things which the

high-school course legitimately leaves untouched have rarely come into the student's experience from any other source before entering college.

Perhaps a few words should be said as to the nature of the college-entrance requirements in English by which most high schools are governed. There are two phases of the work: first, the reading of ten pieces of literature: two of Shakespeare's plays, one specimen each of English prose and English poetry previous to the nineteenth century, two specimens each of prose and poetry within the nineteenth century, and two novels. The specimens read in each case are to be chosen from certain carefully selected groups. The second phase of the work consists of more intensive study of a play, a group of poems, an oration, and an essay, also chosen from established groups. In my list, seventeen out of twenty-two writers were chosen from these groups.

A comparison of Charts A and B at a few points shows significantly what the high school has and has not done in certain particulars. In the cases of only two authors—Shakespeare and Milton—could every student mention the title of one work. The answers in regard to Shakespeare show some variety of information, though *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, and *Julius Caesar* appear most frequently. Of Milton's works, many students mentioned *Paradise Lost*, but only about 65 per cent could tell the author of "Lycidas," though that poem is on the "study and practice" list. The authors receiving above 75 per cent of correct answers were Chaucer, Shakespeare, Milton, Scott, Thackeray, Dickens, George Eliot, and Tennyson—all on the required list. Less than 25 per cent of the students, however, could give correct answers in regard to Ben Jonson, Dr. Johnson, Fielding, Rossetti, Dryden, Pope, Keats, Browning, and Arnold, although the last five are among the great names in English poetry and are found on the college-entrance list. Apparently the titles *Canterbury Tales*, *The Rape of the Lock*, and *Childe Harold* are more familiar than the names of their authors, for in the case of each the students were better able to supply the author's name when the title was given, than to respond to the reverse test. This greater facility was due, doubtless, partly to the associative processes set up by reflecting on the

first list. It should be noted that the results of the questions on Wordsworth as plotted are misleading, for in every case the title given was that of one of three poems memorized in another class the preceding semester. The number of correct answers to the questions on Thackeray was also probably augmented by the fact that another class, at the time of the test, was reading *Vanity Fair* and discussing it widely.

In every case the writers with whom the students were most familiar are on the list of college-entrance requirements, but observe that other writers, on the requirement list, were strikingly unfamiliar to a large number of the students; for example, less than 50 per cent were able to tell the title of one poem by Dryden, Coleridge, Byron, Keats, Browning, Rossetti, or Matthew Arnold. It would seem that the high schools, in selecting from the established groups, are systematically neglecting lyric poetry, though parts of Palgrave's *Golden Treasury of Songs and Lyrics* are included in both the groups of poetry selected. Results from the second test (illustrated in Chart B) show that the poetry best known is in nearly every case narrative poetry: *The Rape of the Lock*, *Childe Harold*, *The Idylls of the King*. The prominence of the two elegies, "Lycidas" and "In Memoriam," is an interesting exception to this rule. Since the latter is not on the required list, one wonders whether the acquaintance with it is due to the significance of its title, or to the appeal of its content to the emotional, introspective mood of adolescence.

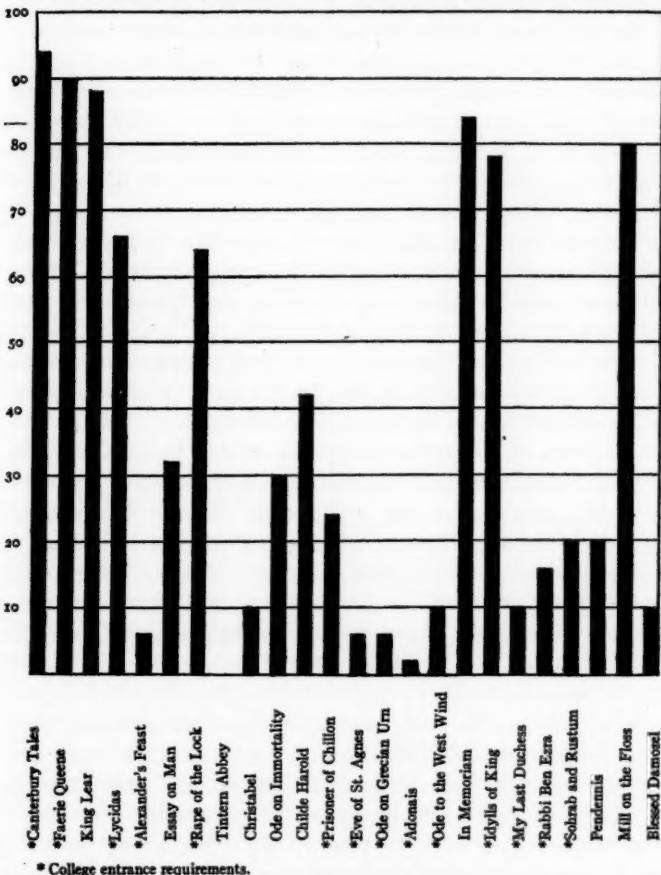
The familiarity of 80 per cent of the students with *The Mill on the Floss* is also noteworthy and hopeful, since that novel is not on the required list, and, in the first test, the large percentage of correct answers to the questions on George Eliot had been augmented by the recollections of *Silas Marner*, which is a required book. In the case of Scott, however, an overwhelming majority of the answers gave *The Lady of the Lake*, *Ivanhoe*, and *Quentin Durward*, all listed among the requirements. In regard to Dickens there was much greater variety, showing either that this novelist makes a more popular appeal than the others or that the peculiarity of his titles causes them to be more easily remembered.

The chronology line is significant but depressing. Any com-

mand of even approximate dates seems startlingly rare; many students made no effort at all to give a date, and the random

CHART B

Showing the percentage of students who were able to give the author of the work.



guesses of those who were bold but ignorant are shockingly incongruous. For instance, in the case of Chaucer only seven students out of fifty could give an approximate date, while the sporadic

guesses ranged from "the first half of the first century" to the eighteenth. It is hard to believe that many teachers present the *Canterbury Tales* without devoting some time to historical background; but this kind of work, apparently, has in too many cases been either strikingly ineffectual or altogether lacking. Again, with Spenser, though 90 per cent of the students remembered him as the author of *The Faerie Queene*, yet none could give an approximate date; apparently there was in their minds no connection of Spenser with the Elizabethan period, or even with his great contemporary, Shakespeare. Few, indeed, could locate even Shakespeare with any accuracy. I was horrified at the lack of any conception of periods of history and social background when I read, on different papers, that Shakespeare lived in "the last half of the eighteenth century" or "the first half of the nineteenth," Milton in the nineteenth and thirteenth centuries, and Wordsworth and Tennyson in the sixteenth.

Certain conclusions, then, these data seem to indicate in regard to the high-school training in English literature with which the students are entering—and perhaps leaving—college. In the case of the majority of its students, the high school has succeeded in developing some measure of familiarity with Chaucer and the *Canterbury Tales*, Shakespeare and certain dramas, Spenser and the *Faerie Queene*, Milton, Coleridge, Tennyson, Thackeray, Dickens, George Eliot, and Scott. So far as this familiarity with these six poets and four novelists is at all definite and accurate, that accomplishment is in no wise to be disparaged. Two criticisms of the work as a whole, however, the data seem to justify: first, that there is too little emphasis laid on the matter of historical relations, by such a study of the background of a piece of literature as should add to the vividness of the student's interest and understanding of the work as a whole; and secondly, that there is apparently a widespread tendency on the part of the high school to neglect the study of lyric poetry. Perhaps this is due both to the fact that lyric poetry in some ways requires more delicate handling on the part of the teacher than narrative poetry, and also to the fact that narrative poetry is more attractive to boys, and to girls of non-literary taste. Yet educational psychology

seems to indicate that, if properly taught, the lyric, with its personal note, and idealistic beauty, should make an appeal to the adolescent mind; and that such poetry should have a desirable influence in refining and defining the ideas and sentiments of that period of storm and stress.

Yet even though the high school should do all that could be expected of it, there would obviously be much left for the college to do, in filling in the gaps in even the barest survey of English poetry and prose. It is evident that little in the way of general knowledge and literary background gained outside of school can be expected from the average high-school graduate or college Freshman. To him, Rossetti, Jane Austen, *Pendennis*, the *Essay on Man*, or *Tintern Abbey*—none of which we require or desire our high schools to teach—must often remain a closed book unless the college brings them to his notice. The college, then, must face the responsibility either of opening or of neglecting to open to its students a large proportion of the wealth of English literature: material which has hitherto been assumed the common property of every educated man, material so familiar a century ago that a writer of the day might quote with easy liberality and trust his readers to recognize his source without definite record of indebtedness.

As yet, however, it is evident that the high schools are not doing all that might be expected of them in their teaching of English, particularly in the smaller towns of the Middle West. Many of my students state that they have used throughout their high-school courses one of two or three standard textbooks on English literature—they have “been through” Halleck, or Pancoast, or Moody and Lovett, as the case may be. Perhaps the way in which many of them “went through” is indicated by the remark of one of my students: she said that, though she could answer hardly any of my questions, they had “learned by heart just hundreds of those things in high school!” Some of the answers I received would suggest that many a heart failed at this crucial moment, for a direful mingling of English and American literature, distorted fact and meaningless fiction, is displayed in the statements that Browning wrote “Snowbound,” Tennyson “The Bare-

foot Boy," Byron "The Cotter's Saturday Night," Dryden *The Vicar of Wakefield*, and "Scott wrote the *Arabian Nights* in the sixteenth century!" The authorship of "Adonais" was variously assigned to Shakespeare, Dryden, Keats, Tennyson, Byron, and Pope; "Christabel" to Ben Jonson, Fielding, and Browning; the *Essay on Man* to Milton, Bacon, Darwin, Dr. Johnson, Byron, and Emerson; while Wordsworth was accused of writing "Grey's Elegy," "The Children's Hour," and "Thanatopsis."

With this mass of misinformation left in many students' minds by the high-school course; with the great field of lyric poetry practically untouched—though not unrequired; and with a rich and spacious field remaining rightfully the domain of the college, wherein lies the study of other works not less great by the authors of the *Canterbury Tales*, *Julius Caesar*, and "Lycidas"; with all this misinformation and ignorance entering its gates with every Freshman class, can the college afford to cut down its required work in English literature?

As a final consideration, whether it stand for classical or technical training, for general culture or intelligent specialization, any institution should value for its students the study of literature not only for content, but quite as much for the practical influence of form. We clamor for men and women who can speak and write their own language effectively, yet we put before them few examples of excellence. It is by familiar association with the masters of language, it is by the acquisition through reading of an effectual stock of words, phrases, idioms, and cadences that a student most surely obtains an appreciation of verbal beauty and discriminating statement, and develops an efficient vehicle for his own expression.

## AN INQUIRY INTO THE CAUSES OF STUDENT DELINQUENCY

REPORT OF THE SURVEY COMMITTEE OF THE SCHOOL-  
MASTERS' CLUB OF MINNEAPOLIS<sup>1</sup>

### I. INTRODUCTORY

W. W. HOBBS  
North High School, Minneapolis

The Minneapolis Schoolmasters' Club at its meeting of October 4, 1911, appointed a committee to investigate the causes of student delinquency, or, in other words, the causes of *failure of a pupil to pass in three of the four regular subjects at the end of the first semester of the current school year, ending January 26, 1912*, and thus of failure to be promoted. From a discussion following an introduction to the subject by the secretary, it was considered best to organize the committee under the supervision of a general chairman, who in turn chose three subchairmen, each to lead a small group of investigators. The three topics of inquiry chosen were: "Home Conditions," "Amusements and Employment," "Corrective and Preventive Agencies," together with general questions as to the student's status within the school. The three subchairmen together prepared a questionnaire which, with the approval of the committee and the superintendent of schools, was sent to five high schools

<sup>1</sup> The composition of the committee is as follows: W. W. Hobbs, principal North High School, chairman; Subcommittee on Home and Physical Conditions and Reading Habits: E. Dudley Parsons (English), West High School, chairman; Byron T. Emerson (chemistry), Central High School; Charles Huff (geography), West High School; E. G. Pennell (commercial), East High School; E. J. Hardaker, principal Jackson School; Subcommittee on Amusements and Employment: D. H. Holbrook (history), East High School, chairman; Malcolm Aldrich, principal Calhoun School; Orrin Ringwalt (manual training), North High School; Charles Austin (mathematics), Central High School; Subcommittee on Corrective and Preventive Agencies and what they are accomplishing: W. H. Shephard (history), North High School, chairman; C. O. Kloepfer (German), West High School; R. J. Schultz (German), South High School; W. A. Westerson (commercial), South High School; J. E. Vance, principal Hawthorne School.

and ten grade schools, including thus "all sorts and conditions" of pupils within its scope. During the year approximately 815 pupils from the fifth to the eighth grades, inclusive, failed of promotion during the semester ending January 26, 1912, out of a total of 16,202 enrolled; and for the same period, 606 high-school pupils out of a total of 5,948 failed in two or more subjects, and were therefore not promoted. The questions to which answers were received from 407 pupils were as follows:

REPORT TO SURVEY COMMITTEE OF SCHOOLMASTERS'  
CLUB OF MINNEAPOLIS  
QUESTIONNAIRE

THE STUDENT:

Name?.....Age?.....  
 1. Grade?.....Number of high-school credits?.....  
 2. Age at entrance to First Grade?.....Where did retardation begin?.....  
 3. What are the pupil's difficult subjects?.....  
 4. How many schools has he attended and where?.....  
 5. Regularity of attendance?.....  
 6. Causes of prolonged absence?.....  
 7. Average time spent in preparation of lessons, outside of school hours?.....  
 8. Number of high-school subjects he is now taking?.....  
 9. Number of times he has taken the same subject because of failure?.....  
 10. Physical condition?.....

HOME CONDITIONS:

11. How many mornings in the week does his family eat breakfast together?.....  
 12. How many times a week does his family eat evening meal together?.....  
 13. What books has pupil read since June, 1911?.....  
 14. What magazines are taken in his home?.....  
 15. Is there any reading aloud by any member of family to the others?.....  
 16. How many evenings in a week does his father attend meetings of organizations such as as church, club, lodge, and union?.....  
 17. How many evenings or afternoons in a week does his mother attend such meetings?.....  
 18. How many evenings in a week are both away?.....How many entire evenings a week is pupil at home?.....  
 19. How often is company entertained evenings?.....  
 20. Does he have a quiet place in which to study?.....Where?.....  
 21. Does he have any home tasks, and how long each day employed in such work?.....  
 22. Does he drink?.....Does he smoke?.....

## AMUSEMENTS:

23. How often does he go to the moving-picture show?.....  
To vaudeville?.....  
24. To regular theater?..... Which does he like best?.....  
25. How often does he go to parties?.....  
26. How often does he visit evenings or remain with friends over night?.....  
27. Does he play on athletic team?..... To what extent?.....  
28. What physical exercise does he have?.....

## EMPLOYMENT:

29. Does he earn any money outside of school hours?..... At what work?.....  
30. What hours, and days each week?.....  
31. Give details of former employment, down to fifth grade?.....  
.....  
32. For what subjects has student shown special liking?.....  
33. What vocation does he prefer, or look forward to?.....

## CORRECTIVE AND PREVENTIVE AGENCIES:

34. Has student at any time come under restraint or direction of any one or more of the following institutions? Give circumstances.....  
a) Humane Society..... f) Night Schools.....  
b) Juvenile Court..... g) Juvenile Protective League.....  
c) Detention Home..... h) Settlement Houses.....  
d) Truant or Ungraded School..... i) Ungraded Teachers.....  
e) Vacation Schools.....  
35. If on probation, give results on scholarship and deportment.....  
.....

## TO THE TEACHER:

36. Add any information that you think is not covered by these questions.

Definition: For the purpose of this investigation, a "delinquent" is a pupil who fails of promotion *this term*, including any who have left during the term because of inability to do the work.

First let us consider the pupil as he appears on the school records. The largest percentage of failures in proportion to the total enrolment for grade pupils was in the seventh grade—7 per cent; the smallest—in the eighth—2.4 per cent. The fifth grade shows 5 per cent, the sixth 5½ per cent. While, from conditions which make this city an ideal one in many respects, these percentages are not very startling, yet they make a problem well worthy of investigation. These proportions are further emphasized by the following figures of those who answered our questions: seventh grade 33 per cent, eighth 12 per cent, fifth 27 per cent, sixth 28

per cent. That the largest number is in the seventh may be explained by the age of the child in that grade and the beginning of his real difficulties attending study and application. It appears that little responsibility outside of school is required of the pupil before the seventh grade is reached, and then that there is not that definite responsibility which might lead to better preparation for the work in high school.

For the high-school students the percentage of failures on the part of students reporting is as follows: A12, 1 per cent; B12, 2 per cent; A11, 5 per cent; B11, 13 per cent; A10, 8 per cent; B10, 16 per cent; A9, 20 per cent; B9, 35 per cent. Of the total enrollment in the high schools during the semester, 15 per cent of the first-year pupils failed, 10 per cent of the second, 14 per cent of the third, and 10 per cent of the fourth. Again, although the situation in the high schools is worse than that in the grades, the figures are not startling. However, if we can reduce these percentages by getting at the root of the trouble, clearly our duty is to do it.

The question which comes next on our questionnaire had to do with the comparative difficulty of subjects. In the grades we find that arithmetic seems to be the great stumbling-block. The principal subjects stated in order of difficulty, the greatest appearing first, are as follows: arithmetic, grammar, English, history, language, and geography. Arithmetic appears to be very decidedly the most difficult; grammar a poor second, and English a very poor third. In the high school, the order of difficulty is as follows: algebra, English, language, geometry, and history. Very few mention science.

That regularity of attendance and continuance in one good school are first aids to efficient work has been axiomatic with educators. Of 380 pupils quizzed on the first point, 80 testify that they have been irregular in attendance. The following table is interesting:

Number of Schools Attended	Number of Pupils Replying
3.....	79
4.....	30
5.....	15
6.....	7
7.....	1

That is to say, 132 students have attended three or more different *schools* in Minneapolis. This table as to the different *systems* attended is no less enlightening:

Number of Systems	Number Replying
2.....	61
3.....	27
4.....	8
5.....	6

Thus, eliminating the number enrolled in two different systems, we have 41, or about 10 per cent of the total number in the inquiry, who have been enrolled in three or more systems. It may be pertinent to remark that while any school system, worthy of the name, keeps the work in its schools of the same general type, there are differences of method and associations that make even changes within the city often detrimental to a child. It is far more evident that shifting from town to town makes for retardation, so foreign is the tongue that the strange boy or girl hears in the new classroom. A move to co-ordinate the work of the various school systems would do much to prevent retardation and consequent waste.

The next topic is the average time spent in preparation of lessons outside of school. It appears from reports that those who failed in the grades devoted from one-half to one hour at home to their work. This is not startling, as those who passed probably did little more. But in the high school a different situation confronts us. If reports are to be believed, a large proportion of those who failed devoted two to four hours outside of school to their work, while only 12 per cent of the failures were content with one hour or less. I think it is settled in the minds of all, of experience, who have looked into this matter, especially principals who come into contact with all classes, that the largest proportion of failures is due to lack of effort. On the part of those who give enough time, the difficulty is due to lack of knowledge as to how to study and how to use their time to advantage. The remedy in the latter case, of course, is definite instruction to individuals and classes as to methods of study, particularly carefulness in giving out lessons and the assurance that pupils have a definite idea of what is required

before they begin their work. Little can be expected of pupils to whom the lesson is given as the class passes from the room, especially if it involves certain development and explanation where a proper foundation is to be laid.

Weak physical conditions is the last general topic assigned. In the grades we find from our best information that of the failures reported  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent were classed as weak physically, and in the high school about 7 per cent. The conditions involved in this class vary so greatly that it is not necessary to take the time to discuss them. This is, of course, the unfortunate group. For their condition, we are not responsible, primarily. We have a definite duty to see that they are brought under physical inspection. When we know how to present, in the proper way, the really necessary laws of hygiene, we shall remedy greater difficulties than now exist.

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## II. REPORT OF SUBCOMMITTEE ON HOME CONDITIONS

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E. DUDLEY PARSONS  
West High School, Minneapolis

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The Subcommittee on Home Conditions entered upon its task with more hope than its friends thought justifiable. To get definite answers to such personal questions as the committee believed ought to be asked was, these friends said, impossible, even if teachers, already worried by various investigations, would consent to make the inquiries. Then, after certain results had been obtained, what reasonably could be argued concerning the relation of these results to delinquency? Would not a similar inspection of "passing" students reveal nearly the same situation? Despite these suggestions of failure, however, the committee has pressed on in the faith that, if only it could give point to the wide generalizations evoked by constant observation and casual questioning of students, by presenting a few significant facts, some good might come of its efforts.

But these efforts have yielded perhaps more than the committee had a right to expect. In general, the criticism of home life that ministers, journalists, travelers, and other observers of our national

tendencies, are making is substantiated by this report. On some points, to be sure—such as the contention that many parents are habitually away from home—the committee cannot hold with these critics. But to the proposition that the home lacks seriousness of purpose, which it must get, if our nation is to increase in intellectual and moral stature, these findings add testimony.

First of all, that economic and social change in our life is tending to scatter the family and so hinder boys and girls from the thoughtful development that a family circle suggests, is a common saying. To test the truth of it, these questions were asked of delinquent students:

1. On how many mornings in a week does your family eat breakfast together?
2. How many times a week do they eat the evening meal together?
3. How many evenings in a week is your father away from home? On how many evenings or afternoons is your mother away? Both together?
4. On how many entire evenings in a week are you at home?
5. How often is company entertained in your home?

The following table shows how the 379 and 375 respectively who replied to the first two questions were distributed:

Days in Week	Breakfast	Evening Meal
0.....	96	41
1.....	55	8
2.....	16	8
3.....	15	5
4.....	14	4
5.....	6	9
6.....	12	30
7.....	165	270
Totals.....	379	375

It will be seen that approximately 50 per cent of these families eat together only half the breakfasts in a week, that 16 per cent are together but once and 26 per cent (largely families of traveling men) are never associated at the morning meal. In many of these homes, children, even those who should report at school almost as early as their elders report at the shop, office, or store, are permitted to sleep late, and then to snatch scraps of food instead of

being persuaded to sit soberly with their parents at the table. Thus they not only miss good training in punctuality, in formal conversation, and in deliberation, but they actually injure their health besides. Neither is to be lightly taken that 15 per cent of the families enumerated are together for less than half the evening meals in a week, and that 12 per cent, for reasons good or bad, never enjoy this communion, once believed to be the right of every family, and certainly needed more in this busy world than it was in the quieter one of our fathers. For obvious reasons there was no account taken of the mid-day meals: those families that meet at noon are very few indeed. The committee thinks that in this tendency to separation at meal time is a danger that parents would do well to appreciate at its full cost.

To the complaint that fathers and mothers are away from their homes a great deal, the following compilation of replies concerning 217 fathers and 348 mothers lends little encouragement.

No. Evenings in Week	Fathers Out	Mothers Out	Both Out
0.....	104	158	169
1.....	124	116	88
2.....	57	50	36
3.....	7	...	...
More.....	25	24	12
Totals.....	317	348	305

Surely the fact that only 8 per cent of the mothers and 10 per cent of the fathers are absent from home more than two evenings or afternoons (in cases of mothers) a week, while 40 per cent of the fathers and 46 per cent of the mothers are absent but once a week, and 46 per cent of the fathers and 43 per cent of the mothers are never away, or so seldom that it is useless to count the outings, need not call for diatribe from either pulpit, platform, or press. The committee grants, however, that these few erring parents ought to be saved themselves first: then perhaps they can expect their children to be serene students.

The committee is surprised to find such a scattering of 380 pupils as this table shows:

Evenings the Pupil Is at Home	Pupils
0.....	14
1.....	15
2.....	25
3.....	45
4.....	56
5.....	79
6.....	55
7.....	91
Total.....	380

Evidently these children believe that they can go home when there is no place easier to reach. It can be seen that 46 per cent of them confess that they are "out" the larger share of the evenings in a week; only 54 per cent that they have the stay-at-home habit. What other reason for the delinquency of the 14 who are never at home during the evening or of the 15 who visit their parents but once a week is to be looked for? And what can be said of the discipline of the parents who permit this kind of thing?

This felony is compounded by the entertainment of "company" who swarm the students in their "quiet hours." Again the table tells the tale:

Company never entertained in.....	52 families
Company entertained once a week in.....	152 families
Company entertained twice a week in.....	59 families
Company entertained thrice a week in.....	39 families
Company entertained oftener in .....	19 families
Total.....	321 families

Here we have 50 per cent of the number answering who see company once a week, regularly if not formally, 20 per cent, twice, and 12 per cent, three times. It is hard for a lively, young animal to "kick against the pricks" and go away by himself to devour geometry or history while just beyond his paddock are Elysian fields of song and laughter.

That so many students have quiet rooms in which to study is another matter of surprise to the committee, the members of which remember their own meager accommodations. But Minneapolis parents are very careful to save their children from struggles which

they themselves were forced to make. In response to a query as to whether they have a quiet place to study, 369 of 427 said "Yes"; and in reply to the question "Where?" artfully put, the committee thought, to catch those who might misconceive the true nature of quietude, of 346, 236 say that they have their own rooms. Is it not possible to lay the flattery to heart that we are to have studious boys and girls merely because we have given them study-rooms? Is the case of the mother who wondered why, when she went to visit her athletic son in his apartments, she so often found him either asleep or conning some matter extraneous to his lesson, so rare?

Another division of its task has afforded the committee a glimpse of these homes. That is the subject of reading. There was no surprise awaiting it there; for its members have not read the advertisements of a certain Philadelphia publishing house without knowing that the homes of America are being buried in the product of that house. Who can see the bales of newspapers shipped into every block in the city and into every hamlet in the state, and expect simple unguided youth to sit poring over biography, the "classic novels," or even the better class of periodicals? All periodicals the committee, rather arbitrarily, it is true, divides into four classes: first, those filled with cheap stories; second, those devoted chiefly to the home—women's journals, young peoples' magazines, and a few, only a few, religious papers; third, those devoted chiefly to reform, that "feature" special industrial and social activities; and fourth, those that discuss current history in a more or less critical manner, and encourage the more serious forms of fiction and exposition. The following table is interesting if not reassuring:

Families who take no periodicals.....	72
Number of Class 1 periodicals taken.....	91
Number of Class 2 periodicals taken.....	402
Number of Class 3 periodicals taken.....	94
Number of Class 4 periodicals taken.....	167

This is to say that 20 per cent of these families apparently find the newspaper all-sufficient for regular mental diet. Of those weeklies and monthlies that are subscribed for, 11 per cent are cheap story magazines, a like percentage, the so-called "muck-

rakers," 19 per cent the higher-priced and generally deeper-toned periodicals; while 50 per cent are home journals. From this tabulation, the committee believes that it may justly conclude that although these families who read magazines do not incline to the worst, they are not disposed to furnish their young people with much food for thought.

Book reading is, of course, stimulated by the school—especially by the high school which demands a certain amount of collateral reading of each student in each term. In this way even delinquents in English get something of permanent worth. It is sufficient to turn to the public-library records to discover the kind of books that Minneapolis is reading. Those records give 70 per cent of fiction to 1 per cent of biography, and the librarians testify that the fiction is principally the lightest that the board allows on the shelves. We may, however, inform ourselves as to the *amount* read by delinquent students since June, 1911, from this table:

Number of Books	Number of Students Replying
None.....	79
5 or less.....	189
More than 5, and less than 10.....	75
More than 10.....	32
 Total.....	 375

Hence it is clear that 20 per cent read no books, outside of school, 50 per cent less than 5, 20 per cent more than 5, but less than 10, and only 10 per cent more than 10. In general, these books correspond in character to the public librarian's testimony; but here and there are notable exceptions of students who have failed in the routine school work, for the sake of putting time on novels to which the teachers have introduced them.

The committee finds that the custom of reading aloud by one member of the family, father or mother or older child, to the group no longer holds the place it used to hold. Hastily eaten meals followed by the rush to work or school or the hurry to dress for the evening's engagements do not permit the communal study of a poem or discussion of a sermon or friendly dispute over politics that was wont to make the family circle a lyceum of purpose and force.

Of 377 families accounted for in this inquiry, only 129 appear to have the custom of reading aloud. In other words, 60 per cent of these children know nothing of the advantage for thought training and general information that this custom gives.

The reading habit is generally affected by either or both of the drinking and smoking habits. Previous observation had not led the committee to expect to find much evidence of a liquor habit among students even of the high school. It had been confident, however, that an extensive use of tobacco would be revealed by its inquiries. This habit many investigators have proved beyond a doubt injurious to study. Of the 228 who answered the question regarding the use of liquor, only 9 confessed to drinking regularly; of 246, only 48 to smoking regularly. Whether these last figures be correct or not, the percentage is large enough to enter into any discussion as to the causes of delinquency. A thoroughgoing campaign should be waged to prevent boys from using tobacco in any form.

Finally, the committee has felt that a lack of a home task—something for which the boy or girl should be held accountable during a certain definite time of each day—is a large factor in the problem of his or her delinquency—in the failure of this boy or girl to undertake his or her *school task* and carry it through to the end. With this idea firmly in mind, the committee asked both whether there was a task and how long it took to perform it. The answers are very interesting—and once more, very surprising: 225 say that they have such tasks, and 92 that they have nothing to do at all. But of those who work about the house, 154 are employed but half an hour each day, and only 39 more than an hour. One boy said that he had to feed the dog every day, and a girl admitted that her regular job was to pay the hired maid once a week. It is clear that for the old woodpile no fitting substitute has been found. To be sure, the modern house seems to be the robber; but although it has taken away the chance to hew wood and draw water, it has provided a warm light basement suitable for a workshop in which the skill learned in the manual-training shop can be applied to the repair and even the manufacture of furniture, the pride of any family to exhibit. In this day of business efficiency

it offers, too, a fine opportunity to the commercially inclined student. What household would not be better for a more careful accounting of its expenditures? And in this time of hustle, it invites someone to be the reader to the family—someone who may as well be a schoolboy or -girl as the head of the family. What is needed, the committee thinks, is not a return to the impossible conditions but an adjustment to those of modern life.

To put its finger upon *the* cause of student delinquency the committee does not venture. It feels that the fickle business world with its ever-increasing demands is the prime factor in the present unrest of mind and spirit, that the home is the victim of this unrest, and that hence it does not furnish youth disciplined faithfully and carefully to follow instruction to the place where initiative takes up the burden of life and guides life not only to support itself with food, but to sustain itself with culture which our fathers who brought forth this nation understood so well. This sense of responsibility, inspired by family union, strengthened by habits of self-denial and by reflection that cometh not of comic supplements and light reading, and further developed by the practice of carrying burdens day after day, the committee feels is lacking in many Minneapolis homes—a statement which its investigations, it believes, entitle it to make.

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### III. REPORT OF SUBCOMMITTEE ON AMUSEMENTS AND EMPLOYMENT

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D. H. HOLBROOK  
East High School, Minneapolis

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Your Committee on Amusements and Employment has confined its investigation to a limited field, and presents statistics suggesting conclusions on the following points:

1. Average frequency of attendance at places of amusement.
2. Extent to which this may be a contributing cause of delinquency.
3. Character of amusements.
4. Extent to which outside employment is a contributing cause.

In answer to the questions, How often do you attend the moving-picture show, the vaudeville, the regular theater, parties, visit

evenings and remain with friends over night? the following figures were gathered:

TABLE I  
FREQUENCY OF ATTENDANCE

Frequency	Picture Shows	Vaudeville	Parties	Visiting	Theater	Total
Twice a week.....	44	8	3	21	4	80
Weekly.....	62	69	27	30	33	221
Bi-weekly.....	31	27	24	9	34	125
Monthly.....	75	87	118	32	80	392
	212	191	172	92	151	818

In order to show the average frequency for the entire 400, the figures should be reduced to a common basis. By multiplying the "twice a week" total by 8, the "weekly" by 4, the "bi-weekly" by 2, and adding these to the "monthly" total, it will be found that a grand total of 2,166 occasions were devoted to idle amusements each month by these 400 delinquents, an average of oftener than once a week.

Realizing that this average was not evenly distributed, that a large number were delinquent from other causes, and therefore that some must be attending outside attractions with considerable regularity, the committee made a study of the habits of each of the 400 and prepared the following table:

TABLE II  
HABITS OF EACH INDIVIDUAL

Apparently not away from home at all.....	136	33 per cent
Not oftener than once a week.....	103	25
Not oftener than twice a week.....	83	20
Not oftener than thrice a week.....	49	12
Not oftener than four times a week.....	22	6
Nearly every afternoon or evening.....	14	4
	407	100

It will be observed that this table supplements the findings of the Committee on Home Conditions, and that the fourteen who confessed that they were never at home are accounted for—this without collusion between the committees. The committee submits that when 42 per cent of all delinquents (62 per cent of those going

outside the home at all for amusement) are away from home and school as often as two afternoons or evenings a week in pursuit of whatever recreation their whim or pocket-book may dictate, certainly one of the causes of delinquency is an overindulgence in idle amusement. As to the character of these amusements the committee has no facts to offer. It was felt that the work of censoring places of amusement and estimating their educational values is a task by itself, and that the facts above stated would be more forceful if they suggested to the community the need of future careful investigation by more expert and competent authorities than if they were obscured by such incomplete data as we might present at this time.

It will be noticed, however, in Table I, that 44 (10 per cent of the 400) say they are accustomed to spend two afternoons or evenings at the picture shows; and that of the 212 who go there at any time, 106, or 50 per cent, attend as often as once a week. Yet the preferences expressed in answer to the question: "Which do you like best?" shows that only 24 prefer the picture show, 92 the vaudeville, and 142 the regular theater, while 149 have no choice. It would seem to your committee that the reason so many are wasting their time in this manner is not that they like it, but that they can afford it, and that the need is certain and the demand great for some "social machinery" to provide the means for realizing the ideals expressed in this choice of amusements. Common-sense does not dictate, nor do overcrowded courses permit, nor would overworked teachers welcome, an addition of this nature to the routine work of the school; but the dark, vacant school buildings with their many well-equipped auditoriums and gymnasiums stand as a constant reproach to our tardiness as a community in providing cheap, wholesome amusement for all our boys and girls together with their fathers and mothers. When the authorities shall see their way clear to adopt an aggressive policy in leading the people to use their school buildings for educational and recreational purposes to the fullest extent, a long step will have been taken toward providing supervised and wholesome amusement for normal as well as delinquent pupils.

In this connection it should be stated that an investigation

would undoubtedly show that the conditions tabulated for these delinquent pupils are not exceptional, but are normal for all pupils. A comparison of our figures with those gathered last year by Mrs. Perry Starkweather, assistant commissioner of labor, shows that the percentage of all children attending picture shows is about the same as the above percentage for delinquents. If too frequent attendance on picture shows is a cause of delinquency, surely an equally frequent attendance by all pupils must be a serious interference with the best results.

In the matter of employment the following figures are suggestive:

TABLE III  
EMPLOYED AT WORK OTHER THAN HOME TASKS

Afternoons.....	97	Carrying papers.....	44
Evenings.....	2	Clerks.....	34
All night.....	1	Delivery boys.....	24
Saturdays.....	21	Trades.....	19
	121		121

It is evident from the foregoing that the 100, or 25 per cent of the 400, who work several hours every day point to another cause of failure to do normal school work. But the committee was in doubt what importance to attach to this apparent cause, in view of the well-known fact that we have many boys who are earning their entire expenses and doing very creditable class work. With this in mind the cases were studied to see if this were as large a factor as it seemed. It was found that 54 of the 100 were numbered among those who attended amusements as often as once a week. It would seem therefore that their outside work was only one factor in half the cases.

The committee was interested in knowing the ambitions and aspirations that were in the minds of the 400, and were surprised to learn that 38 wished to be business men, 48 to work at a trade, and 106 to follow a profession; 226 expressed no choice, an entirely likely percentage considering the ages. It was not without point to discover that the favorite choice of the 106 failures in school, who think they are preparing for a profession, is teaching.

Only 15 took an active interest in athletics. In answer to

the question: "What physical exercise does he have?" 145 said they had sufficient, 78 had some, and 83 none. The data on this point were so indefinite, however, that no very specific information was secured.

In conclusion the committee finds that:

1. The delinquent pupils are spending more than one afternoon or evening away from home in unsupervised recreation.
2. Sixty-two per cent of those seeking amusement outside the home are going twice a week or oftener.
3. A further investigation of the character of amusement now afforded should be made; the further development of the school building as a social center is advisable.

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#### IV. CORRECTIVE AND PREVENTIVE AGENCIES

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W. H. SHEPHERD  
North High School, Minneapolis

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This subcommittee has had for its more immediate field such agencies as the Juvenile Court, the Truant or Ungraded School, the Boys' Detention Home, vacation schools, and the ungraded teacher. It may be cause for gratulation that the returns from these inquiries were so meager. It has been apparent in many cases, where replies were made, that the relation of cause and effect could hardly be discovered or deduced. Since it is true, however, that such institutions as the Court, the Ungraded School, and the Boys' Detention Home are constantly in touch with and of service to the public schools, it may be wise to refer to their particular activities.

Altogether in ten cases reported to us—eight grade pupils and two high-school students—has the Juvenile Court been directly a factor and helpful in improving the deportment, if not the scholarship, of most of them. In two cases home conditions were unmistakably bad, through lack of moral restraint. Three of the boys have been under each of the following agencies: Juvenile Court, Truant School, and ungraded teacher. One high-school student, as naïvely expressed by himself, was taken by a mistake for "the

wrong noise-maker"; the other, twice in court, had a normal school record. A kleptomaniac tendency is indicated in one; another boy, with plenty of work to do at home, was up for "stealing bicycles." In general, court experience is not shown to have a marked effect upon scholarship.

From Miss Kate Finkle's<sup>1</sup> study of Juvenile Court cases, covering a period of two years, 1908-10, a number of conclusions are here given reflecting upon home conditions. Of contributing causes behind offenses, the most significant is deficiency in the home, where almost without exception lies the fault. The "weak homes," those that fail sufficiently to protect the child, are:

1. Abnormal in construction of family life.
2. Abnormal or subnormal in parental control.

Miss Finkle further divides the abnormal home into the following classes:

- a) The deficient home, in which one or both parents are dead, insane, or divorced.
- b) The "half home," in which both parents work, or where the father is absent from town a large part of the time.
- c) The home where poverty crowds.
- d) The vicious home, in which there is drink, immorality, or where the parents have served or are serving workhouse sentences.

In reference to the second class, the divisions are as follows:

- a) The home where parental control is weak, through lack of will-power.
- b) The home where parents are too indulgent.

"Out of the 1,070 cases, 126, in which the family construction was perfect, were dismissed after trial; 416 of the families or 39 per cent of the total were not normally constituted"; that is, either the father or mother, or both, had died or were insane, or the parents were divorced or separated. In 63 families there was drunkenness to excess on part of either or both parents. In 31 families, the parents were either mentally or physically disabled. Thriftlessness and immorality show in many of these cases. The total of the foregoing families, abnormal in construction, gives 51 per cent.

<sup>1</sup> Special probation officer, Hennepin County, Juvenile Court.

In the remaining 49 per cent of the 1,070 families, initial delinquency is attributed to "lack of proper control or too great indulgence on the part of the parents." In 24 per cent of the families so considered, "one or both of the parents frankly admit that their child is beyond home control," an admission made not only by dwellers on the "flats," but by those living on the parkways and boulevards. The observations of the special officer as to inadequate playgrounds and lack of small parks, where most needed, the need of a "school of training for parents," the lack of enforcement of anti-cigarette laws and curfew ordinances, are pertinent to the whole problem of proper control. This survey demonstrates at least one thing, as indicated elsewhere: that in the home are the chief issues and the greatest burden of the problem's solution. And yet the statement in a recent *Bulletin of Municipal Statistics*, issued by the Minneapolis City Controller, to the effect that 70 per cent of the total population of 301,000 are living in homes, rather than in hotels and apartment buildings, indicates rather an exceptional and favorable condition, as cities go, for normal family life.

The Detention Home\* is located 14 miles from the city on 92 acres of land, an excellent farm home, carefully and ably supervised. To it delinquent and dependent boys are regularly committed by the Juvenile Court. It is organized on the family plan, with instruction in the third, fifth, and seventh grades; six months is the maximum term. In 1911, 85 boys were committed. January 1, 1912, 21 boys were on hand. It is significant that in 41 of the above cases, the parents were separated, or one or both dead; 52 of these boys were 14 and below in age. But 3 cases on our inquiry appear on its rolls, one a truant.

In the Ungraded School, two of the delinquents in this inquiry had been enrolled. In each case the home conditions were deplorable. This school tries to make a special study of each of its pupils, generally without "laying hands on." Most of the pupils are above the average in intelligence, many of them being "victims of environment," i.e., the conditions in the grades "where a tired

\* Under joint direction of judges of District Court and Board of County Commissioners.

teacher, with nerves, has too many pupils." This school has more to do with very active boys who easily do their work, than with those to whom we refer as "delinquents." All told, there were 176 enrolled in 1911-12, and the number in attendance at one time ranged from 12 to 20, there for a period of one month.

The ungraded teacher, as she is called, is especially appointed to each building to help backward pupils of any grade. The returns show that 22 pupils have been under such supervision once each, one twice, one three times, and one four times. In half a dozen cases, sickness, apparently, was the predisposing cause. In two cases of high-school students the reason assigned was that their people had moved a great deal.

Eight high-school students testify to the necessity of attendance in the vacation schools, giving as the reasons too rapid growth, too little study, too much outside work, and trouble with mathematics.<sup>1</sup> Eighteen grade pupils report having attended such schools; of these, three have also had the assistance of the ungraded teacher several times. Very few of these appear abnormal in type.

The main conclusion of this committee is that, while few of the "failing" students appear to have come under the supervision or restraint of these corrective and preventive agencies, the data gathered reinforce the contention that our American homes too easily give over the task of teaching and discipline to the school and to the pupil himself.

<sup>1</sup> The Minneapolis vacation schools were held from July 8 to August 15 during the summer of 1912. According to the final report of F. H. Forssell, superintendent, the enrolment in the various departments, including manual training and domestic science, was 3,715. Of the 2,181 in the academic department there were 1,179 "retarded" pupils, and 986 were recommended for promotion.

## THE ORGANIZATION OF A COLLEGE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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E. A. MILLER  
Oberlin College

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This article was prepared in the course of regular committee work in a single institution for use by the committee. The committee was considering, among others, some problems concerning the work of the department of education. The writer is encouraged to give publicity to this phase of the committee's work, in the belief that it sets forth certain general problems which arise in many colleges and universities.

A large proportion of the graduates of Oberlin College have entered and are entering the teaching profession. Many more go into this work on graduation than enter any other single vocation.

In the catalogue of former students published by the college in 1908, the vocations of 2,043 graduates are given. Of this number, 789 or 38.5+ per cent were in the teaching profession. The same catalogue gives the vocations of 4,435 former students who are not graduates. Of this number, 1,071 or 24+ per cent were teachers.

The figures for 1909 and 1910 show that 52+ per cent of the graduates of the class of 1910 commenced to teach the year following graduation, while the class of 1911, last year's class, shows 60 per cent turning to teaching immediately on graduation. Not all of this 60 per cent, of course, remain in the teaching profession permanently. There are many young women who teach for a few years and then leave the profession by the marriage route. There are always some young men who teach for a few years, intending eventually to take up work of a different nature. The figures given above concerning graduates would indicate, however, that a large portion stay permanently in the teaching profession.

From the standpoint of the schools and the general public, it is of course desirable that those who remain only for a time as teachers shall be well equipped for the work.

The first course in education or pedagogy in Oberlin College was given in the spring term of 1896 and 1897, and was an attempt

to give more definite preparation to those who expected to teach upon graduation.

From 1898 until 1903 a three-hour course in pedagogy was given throughout each year as a part of the work of the department of psychology. In 1903 the work was organized as a separate department and placed in charge of the writer of this article. It ought to be said that this reorganization was not primarily because of a recognition of the importance of the work in education. The work in education was expected to be only a part of the work of the professor in charge, and the balance of the time was to be given to administrative work not connected with the department. Not until 1907 was as large a proportion as one-half time given to the work in education. That amount has not been exceeded until the present year. This year nine hours per week are being given, while the administrative work remains the same.

The accompanying chart shows the growth of interest in the work in education, and the importance attached to it by students who expected to teach, as indicated by attendance.

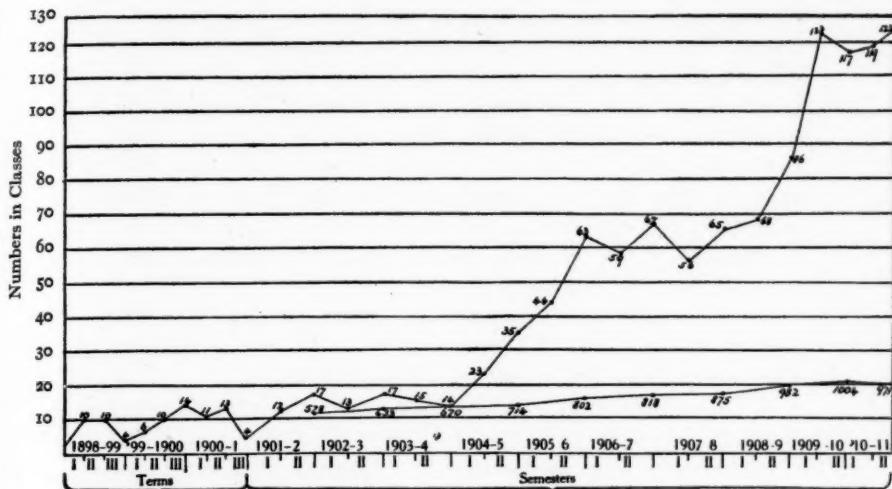
It has been the policy of the department to interest the heads of the other departments in an attempt to establish teachers' training courses in the various subjects taught in secondary schools. In accordance with this policy, teachers' training courses are now given in physical training, Latin, English, German, and mathematics. The courses in physical training and Latin were established before the present incumbent commenced his work. This general plan had the hearty support of those who had previously taught the courses in education.

The teachers' training courses in Latin, English, German, and mathematics are two-hour courses, given for two semesters, and receive four hours of college credit each, toward the one hundred and twenty semester hours required for the A.B. degree.

In addition to these courses the department has urged that similar courses be given in physical science, in biological science, in history, political economy and political science, and in French.

In addition to this, the department has felt the need, if opportunity offered, of affording a certain amount of practice teaching with pupils of secondary grade, and has advocated work of this nature.

A most interesting situation has now arisen which threatens to defeat this entire plan and nullify much that has been accomplished. At the close of last year a committee of the faculty on curriculum and degrees completed its work in a report that included, with



Upper curve shows increase in attendance in classes in education in Oberlin College from 1898 to 1911. Lower curve shows growth of the College during same period.

much of a constructive nature that does not touch the point at issue, these two recommendations:

1. It is not possible to organize the college course into actual vocational preparation without devoting at least one year of the course to purely technical, vocational courses. This reduces the amount of liberal training, and is impracticable at Oberlin because it would demand a large increase of equipment and teaching force.
2. It is recommended that the elections of a student be organized to meet the needs of his future vocation by means of suggested schedules and the direction of advisers, but not by offering technical, vocational courses.

The attention of the faculty was given primarily to the constructive work of the committee, and these two recommendations were adopted with the rest of the report, practically without discussion

and without realization on the part of many of the real meaning of this portion of the report.

This whole subject has now been referred to another committee, to consider its bearing on courses that have something of the vocational or technical element. Among other subjects, the whole question of the preparation of teachers is to be considered.

A strong element in the committee believes that the vote of last year should stand; that in accord with this vote no credit toward the A.B. degree should be given for the teachers' training courses in so far as these are technical in nature—the courses in education proper are considered theoretical and hence worthy of credit—and that no credit toward an A.B. degree should be given for practice work if such work shall at any future time be established.

Some of the committee believe that the technical and vocational elements in the preparation of teachers should be given in a fifth year. They say that the prospective teacher should first complete his college course; that he should then be given the opportunity to take a year, a portion of which should be highly specialized work bearing upon teaching, and that none of this work shall count toward any arts degree, either Bachelor's or Master's.

The position of the department of education is that most of those who are to teach will teach immediately upon graduation from college, and that it is the duty of the college to give adequate preparation in the four years of the college course. Only a small part of this preparation need be highly specialized, but that small part is most essential in preparing the teacher to serve society adequately and to win success for himself. While taking this position, the department recognizes the desirability of an added year of professional work for teachers, but it believes that under present conditions it is neither practical nor desirable to insist that a college student expecting to teach shall wait until after college graduation before making any specific preparation for the work.

The department of education does not admit that a course so specialized has no liberal or cultural values, and contends that it is perfectly proper to count such work toward an A.B. degree. It further contends that such work may be looked upon as laboratory work and organized upon that basis and credit given for it, in the

same way that credit is given for work in the psychological laboratory or any one of the science laboratories.

To determine what current practice is, the following questions were sent to a number of representative institutions:

What credit, if any, is given in your institution for practice teaching or observation work?

Is this work done by undergraduates, or only by graduate students?

Is the work looked upon as laboratory work of the department of education, and provision made for it as such, or is it looked upon as professional work and not properly a part of the work of a liberal arts college?

Replies were received from the following institutions: Colorado College, College of William and Mary, Beloit College, Cornell University, Columbia University, George Washington University, Harvard University, Indiana University, Lehigh University, New York University, Northwestern University, Ohio State University, Rochester University, Syracuse University, University of Chicago, University of Cincinnati, University of Colorado, University of Illinois, University of Iowa, University of Minnesota, University of Missouri, University of Nebraska, University of Pennsylvania, University of Texas, University of Wisconsin, University of Wyoming, University of Kansas, and Washington University.

Twenty-eight replies were received. This includes all the institutions to which queries were sent. The institutions were selected from the lists prepared by Professor Farrington in 1909 as representing those institutions that offered practice and observation work and whose professors of education were members of the National Society of College Teachers of Education. Inquiries were not sent to institutions in the South, except to the College of William and Mary. Two or three northern institutions were inadvertently omitted. The replies from some of those which answered need not be considered, as their work does not bear upon the question at issue.

Beloit College has no real practice work. Members of the class practice upon each other, by dividing the class in sections. New York University has almost entirely experienced teachers as students in education, who have received their practice before entering the school.

Rochester, Syracuse, and Cornell universities each give the twenty single-hour periods of observation work required by the state for the state teachers' certificate, but does not mention other courses in practice or observation.

The University of Iowa, because of lack of facilities, does not give such work, but did formerly give observation work which was counted toward the A.B. degree.

The University of Pennsylvania offers no practice work.

The University of Wisconsin gives some observation work in the public schools of Madison, and is just completing a \$150,000 building for the practice work of teachers. The department of education in Wisconsin expects the work to be counted toward the A.B. degree. Wisconsin recognizes the principle of giving credit for work of a vocational nature, and it is practically sure that the same principle will apply in education.

Deducting these seven institutions, there remain twenty-one that give practice work in teaching. Of this number, seventeen credit the work toward the A.B. degree as follows. Toward other degrees more credit is given in some of the institutions. Oberlin grants only the A.B. degree, and for that reason only the credit given toward that degree was considered.

	Credit	Degree
Columbia University.....	2 points	A.B.
George Washington University.....	2 semester hours	A.B.
Harvard University.....	One-half of one course practice	A.B.
Harvard University.....	One-half of one course observation	A.B.
Indiana University.....	*6 hours	A.B.
Lehigh University.....	4 term hours	A.B.
Northwestern University.....	3 semester hours	A.B.
University of Chicago.....	1 major	A.B.
University of Cincinnati.....	2 credits	A.B.
University of Colorado.....	4 semester hours	A.B.
University of Illinois.....	5 semester hours practice	A.B.
University of Illinois.....	2 semester hours observation	A.B.
University of Minnesota.....	3 semester hours	A.B.
University of Nebraska.....	Credit not given separately, included in another course	A.B.
University of Wyoming.....	Part of 5-hour course	A.B.
Colorado College.....	4 hours	A.B.
College of William and Mary.....	3 hours	A.B.

\*Uncertain whether this is term or semester hours, probably the latter.

†Colorado offers a total of eight semester hours. One-half may count toward M.A.

The University of Kansas does not credit the work toward the A.B. degree, and requires candidates who expect the teacher's diploma to finish 125 hours, five hours in addition to the 120 hours required for the A.B. degree.

Washington University gives no credit of any kind. The work when done is done as an extra; the time is not over six weeks.

Ohio State University and the University of Missouri count the work toward the B.S. degree only.

To summarize: Of the twenty-one institutions giving such work from which replies were received, the credit allowed is as follows:

- 16 toward the A.B. degree
- 2 toward the B.S. degree
- 2 toward a diploma or certificate, but not toward the A.B.
- 1 toward the B.S. and also toward the A.B. degree

The amount of credit so allowed runs from two semester hours to five semester hours, with a possibility in one institution—the University of Colorado—of receiving credit for eight semester hours. The credit in Harvard University is not given separately, but in connection with a course in education, in which about one-half the credit is allowed for practice work. This would make about one and one-half hours of credit for such work at Harvard, but the same assignment is made for observation, making the total credit for observation and practice approximately three hours.

These figures would indicate that a large majority of the institutions of college rank that provide practice teaching for their students credit such work toward the A.B. degree. The figures also indicate that there is general agreement that the amount of this work should rarely be more than five hours per week for a semester.

Two contentions which the department in Oberlin has to meet are as follows: First, that such work ought not to be credited toward an A.B. degree. Second, if such work is to be given at all, it should be given in a year course, largely or wholly technical in its nature, and this year should be given as a fifth year beyond the college course.

The department feels that this amount of technical work is largely in excess of the amount needed in the preparation given by

a college for secondary-school work. It is also felt that in case an extra year is taken, it should be taken in one of the larger universities, such as Columbia, Harvard, or Chicago. The only feasible way to give such work in a college is to give it recognition as a legitimate portion of the undergraduate work. The simplest way to do this is to credit it toward the A.B. degree in the College of Arts and Sciences, and to place a limit upon the amount of technical or vocational work that any single individual may count toward the A.B. degree.

This the department believes will be the final result in Oberlin. In case this is not done, it might be possible to grant the A.B. degree in education and organize the work separately as a college of education; or it might be possible to go back to the two degrees, A.B. and B.S., and give recognition for work of this character only toward the B.S. degree. In case this is done, the A.B. degree ought of course, logically, to include required Greek and Latin. It is doubtful if our most ardent advocates of liberal culture, pure and undefiled, care to go back to this position here.

There is added a number of quotations from the letters received. These quotations seem to show how the work is regarded by the institutions replying. It is not the purpose of this article to argue the question, on its theoretical aspects, or take up the underlying principles. Its only purpose is to present some of the facts.

#### UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER

The courses prescribed include psychology, logic, science of education and history of education, and twenty hours of observation of instruction in a high school or elementary school. These courses all receive full credit for the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

#### TEACHERS COLLEGE—COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Practical work in our schools of observation and practice has always been counted as laboratory work when done under the supervision of a college professor and in connection with a regular college course. . . . [It] is counted both for the degree of Bachelor of Science in Teachers College and the degree of Bachelor of Arts in Columbia and Barnard College.

#### LEHIGH UNIVERSITY

Observation work is credited as the equivalent of recitations, on the basis of two hours' observation to one hour recitation, as with laboratory work. Practice work is credited on the same basis, substantially as laboratory work, and provision is made therefor in our register by faculty action.

**THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS**

The course in observation and practice is open to Seniors and to graduates. It is looked upon as laboratory work in part.

**UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS**

Practice teaching was preceded by a course in observation and the technique of teaching carrying two hours' credit. The practice teaching course involved one hour of actual teaching each day during the semester, five hours, credit being given for this work. All who were acquainted with the work, however, agreed that the course in practice teaching should earn rather more than five hours' credit. While the work in practice teaching is primarily professional, it is a means of broadening and intensifying one's knowledge of subject-matter, and for this reason was strongly indorsed by our academic departments. The courses became more popular and were elected by the strongest women students in the College of Literature and Art, and by a number of good men.

I am convinced that five hours of practice teaching for a semester or ten hours for a full year should be granted credit toward the A.B. degree; this is under the proviso, of course, that the supervision of practice is close, painstaking, and intelligent.

**INDIANA UNIVERSITY**

The practice teaching in the high school is considered by the department as laboratory work and as a test of the student's working grasp of principles.

**UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI**

Observation and practice teaching in the public schools of this city under expert direction of members in the department of education, is counted as laboratory work. . . . The student gets two credits for the year. Such work is included in the twenty-four credits in education which may be counted for the A.B. degree in the college of liberal arts.

**NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY**

. . . We offer one course in education, known as practice teaching under supervision . . . for three hours of college credit. It is in fact a laboratory course under the supervision of the department.

**HARVARD UNIVERSITY**

Undergraduates are allowed to do practice teaching; that is, properly qualified Seniors, who expect to teach after graduation, are permitted to do practice work. As you will see, the practice work forms the better part of a regular half-course and so receives due credit.

**UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO**

The work is regarded here as the laboratory work of the Department of Education, and the credit mentioned above is allowed toward the B.A. degree, and, in case of "advanced practice teaching," for the M.A. degree as well.

## UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

I have no question at all, and I am sure that the faculty would be in agreement with me in this matter, that the work is entirely suitable work on which to give credit toward the Bachelor's degree. We give credit for such practice teaching.

The question you raise about undergraduate and graduate work in education is one which I am sure we should all like to answer by saying that a year of graduate work should be required of all persons who are going to teach in the high schools. . . . I am perfectly clear that at the present moment it is an ideal and not a practical possibility. Teachers for high schools are in such demand that the graduate with his baccalaureate degree has no difficulty at all in securing a position. Since this is the case, I think we ought to give him some special preparation for teaching during his undergraduate course.

## UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

My own point of view is that when a college, not having a distinct school of education with another degree than that of A.B., finds it necessary to train its graduates for high-school instructorship and includes practice teaching . . . it is only fair to let it count toward the degree.

## UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

We look upon it as laboratory work of the college and also as direct preparation for teaching, and allow three credits toward our B.A. degree.

## UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

As I am able to weigh the situation here, the policy of the University of Wisconsin with regard to practice teaching has already been decided by the precedent of establishing such courses as the course in commerce, leading to the B.A. degree. . . . In fact, I think there is a deep-seated feeling among our most progressive men that our courses of instruction need to be vitalized by work of the practical application sort.

There is also included in closing the following quotation taken from a personal letter from Mr. Dewey. While this does not refer to the work of any particular institution, it is of importance in its bearing upon the whole question under discussion.

I have not changed the views on college education to which you refer, unless it is that they have become more positive in the direction of the desirability of closer relation between the vocational and the cultural. Personally, I should apply the principle to the college even more than to the university, and I think the principle properly applied contains the solution of the redirection of the American college at the present time. . . . I see no reason why practice work carried on under supervision of a department, if taken in connection with some regular course and employed to illustrate and make out the theory of that course, should not count for a college degree.

## DISCUSSION AND CORRESPONDENCE

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### THE USE OF TOBACCO AS A CAUSE OF FAILURES AND WITHDRAWALS IN ONE HIGH SCHOOL

In the school of which the writer has supervision it has been noticed that the odor of tobacco often accompanies low marks; and furthermore, that the boys who come from other high schools, smelling of tobacco, usually fail to bring credit for all the studies taken in those schools. It was suspected, also, that student mortality might be greatest among those addicted to the tobacco habit.

To get at the facts in the matter I had one of the students make an investigation. The task was given him as a piece of original research in the class in economics, the subject assigned being "The Effect of Smoking on Student Efficiency." This young man was chosen with some care. He is a Senior, capable, trustworthy, and an earnest worker. He does not use tobacco himself; yet he enjoys the confidence of all the boys who smoke. He is the best all-round athlete in the school, captain of the track team, quarterback on the eleven, and member of the glee club. He disarms envy, however, by working to earn money and support himself in part while attending school.

The young investigator had the privilege of moving about during study periods, sitting and talking with the other boys as he saw fit. The school records of marks and attendance were open to him; and while he did not disclose to me the names of any smokers, he had access to me constantly for advice in the work. In each case he assured the boy investigated that the information he secured was for statistical purposes only, and that he would in no case disclose the names of smokers. The smokers had confidence in these assurances. They freely told him the facts about their use of tobacco, and in some cases became much interested in the problem he was investigating. But he took pains in all cases to check up the statements of a boy by the statements of that boy's friends, so that he might know that the information he received was *bona fide*.

Sixty-two boys were investigated in the first-year class and ninety-four in the second, third, and fourth. These comprised very nearly all the boys now in school. In addition he secured reliable information regarding forty-five of the sixty-two boys who have left school in the past three years without completing their course, and all the graduates of these years. The results of the investigation are particularly interesting. Of the graduates not one was found to have been an habitual smoker while in school. Of the forty-five quitters who were investigated all were habitual smokers and none were in good standing in their classes at the time they left school. The average grade of these in all studies was 69 per cent, six points below the passing mark.

Of the ninety-four upper-class boys, thirty-eight were found to be habitual smokers; thirty-six never had smoked; and twenty had formerly smoked more or less, but had abandoned the habit. Their grades are as follows:

Non-smokers.....	83 per cent
Habitual smokers.....	76 per cent
Reformed smokers.....	79 per cent

The marks are in each case an average of all the marks received by that group of students while in the high school.

Of the sixty-two first-year students, seventeen were found to be habitual smokers, forty-one never smoked, and four had given up the practice. Their grades when averaged were as follows:

Non-smokers .....	84 per cent
Habitual smokers.....	76 per cent
Reformed smokers.....	82½ per cent

In the case of those students who had recently learned to smoke it was found that the time of acquiring the habit was registered by a slump in their marks. Their general average before they took to tobacco had been 85 per cent; while afterward it fell to 78 per cent. The average number of smokes a day indulged in by the smokers as a whole is six. One young man of twenty confessed to having smoked as many as fifty cigarettes in one day. This young man, as a result of the investigations, quit the habit and in the following period of six weeks his marks came up 10 per cent on the average.

The boys who are doing the best work in school do not take to smoking. The average grade of the ten highest boys is 90.9 per cent. None of these use tobacco. The average grade of the ten smokers who stand highest is 78.9 per cent. Probably the really able and ambitious boy knows better than to dissipate his energies in this way. The habit seems to fasten itself on the less capable and those of average ability.

When a boy's natural capacity is such as to admit of his making a grade not much above the passing mark, smoking proves fatal to his educational progress. Such a boy fails in his work as soon as he takes to smoking, and presently drops out of school. The habitual smoker was seldom found to be capable in the sports and games of the school. Thus there is nothing in athletics to hold him in school; and when he finds himself a failure in class work as well, he abandons the attempt to get an education.

The most striking figures which the investigation disclosed are here summarized:

Number	Average grade
77 boys who have never smoked.....	84.5
24 boys who have quit smoking.....	80.5
55 habitual smokers now in school.....	76
45 habitual smokers who have recently quit school.....	69

About half of all the boys in the high school learn to smoke. Of these a third learn before entering. The others learned in over 90 per cent of cases

during the summer vacation. Many of them took up the habit to kill time while engaged either as caddies at the golf clubs during the waits between service, or as ushers at Ravinia Park during the intervals between concerts. Probably one-third of the boys who fail in school owe their lack of success directly to this vice. Most of the boys smoke cigarettes. Those who have had the habit a long time smoke pipes. The boys are not made sick by the tobacco; but all acknowledge that it is harmful.

In seeking reasons why high-school boys so frequently fail in their work and why they drop out of school in such large numbers, school men have probably not given sufficient consideration to the extent and evil of the use of tobacco among students. During the period of growth when there is often a general break-up of the nervous and physical organization of adolescents, and when the heart is so often irregular in its action, the use of tobacco is particularly injurious. Its baneful effects are immediately apparent in loss of mental, moral, and physical tone. By it the boy is unfitted to succeed either at work or at play. He becomes discouraged and drops out of school.

RICHARD L. SANDWICK

HIGHLAND PARK, ILLINOIS

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#### OVIEDO AND UNIVERSITY EXTENSION<sup>1</sup>

The little University of Oviedo, although established by Phillip III as far back as the year 1604, has not grown rapidly in three hundred years. It has not more than three hundred students in regular attendance, and its faculty of twenty or thirty teachers do all their work in one modest structure less than two hundred feet square. The institution has an annual income of less than \$13,000, and is by no means the most prosperous of the generally somewhat neglected chain of Spanish universities. But this struggling little school has for years kept in operation an original and very successful system of university extension. If the enterprise had been carried on in any other part of the world than Spain it would have enjoyed a generous amount of advertising; as it is, the news of it which the Oviedo professor, Dr. Altamira, brought to this country in the course of his visit in 1910 was news indeed.

It is not easy to give statistical information about this movement or to study its method of operation; in fact, it seems delightfully free from method. This comment is not intended for sarcasm; opportunism sometimes has its decided advantages. Started in 1898, the movement has never involved any attempt to work toward diplomas or degrees, or to keep any sort of record of the progress of the students. The enterprise has never received a peseta of help from either the institution or the state. And most unique feature of all, the subjects of the courses are chosen, not by the teachers, but by the students.

<sup>1</sup>*La Extension Universitaria.* Par RAFAEL ALTAMIRA. Universidad de la Habana: Revista de la Facultad de Letras y Ciencias, Mayo de 1912.

To elucidate this most startling phase of procedure, first it is necessary to explain that the general lectures which form the principal part of the extension work are planned early in October, as a result of a popular mass-meeting at which all who care to attend come together for a free-for-all discussion. The professors in charge of the work note the opinions expressed, and the printed program of lectures which appears a few days later is always found to have taken careful account of these requests.

Part of the general lectures are delivered in the university auditorium and part at the headquarters of various workingmen's clubs in the city of Oviedo; for this movement is one which is intended especially for the help of the workingmen, although Dr. Altamira boasts that at the general lectures all strata of society, both sexes, and all ages are invariably represented. They are all absolutely free, which is another very pleasant feature of the undertaking.

Besides these regularly planned and posted series at home, lectures are delivered in neighboring cities, Gijon, Santander, Bilbao, where audiences of miners and industrial employees are addressed, and even in large villages where the hearers are principally agricultural laborers. These away-from-home series are even more haphazard, so to speak, than those at home. At the end of the week the extension faculty—made up of regular professors from the University, public-school teachers, and professional men of Oviedo, and of advanced University students—assembles in the University faculty-room and talks over plans for the coming week. This city has called for a particular speaker whom they had before and liked. This village wants such a subject discussed by anyone who is free and competent. And so a plan is pieced together for the week. The person or organization—in most cases, apparently a workingmen's society—applying for the speaker is supposed to pay his expenses, it being understood that he travels third class, that is, in the cheapest possible fashion. But many cases have arisen where lectures were called for and no funds were forthcoming to pay even the necessary expenses of the lecturers. No applications have ever been refused for financial reasons. In a few cases the lecturer has paid the bill himself; generally, business men of Oviedo have supplied the funds.

The themes discussed in these general addresses are varied, but it appears that for the most part they are rather of a literary or cultural character than attempts at imparting practical instruction. Dr. Altamira mentions series on the *Odyssey*, on Shakespeare, and on Rousseau as especially popular and successful. At all lectures the audience is given entire liberty to ask questions, not merely at the conclusion but at any time during the progress of the discussion, and advantage is very freely taken of this permission.

Besides the general addresses, there are special courses of several kinds. A particular effort has been made to teach the workingmen to read the masterpieces of literature, and with this end in view the men who are interested have been divided into groups of five to ten, who listen, question, and discuss as an extension professor reads. It is beyond question that a large fraction

of the population of every country who can write their names and spell out the headlines of a newspaper are absolutely unable to read in the true sense of the word. These Oviedo professors have been able to help some men and women of this class to understand the purpose of a dictionary, to develop in a small degree the power of abstraction, and to catch at least a hint of the charm of imaginative literature.

At first there was no thought of children in the courses. But when a class of laborers was driven to protest because a group of little girls insisted on coming in and embarrassing them by visibly following the subject-matter of their course better than they themselves were doing, another professor was detailed to take the little girls separately; and now there are separate series of lectures for children, and others for women.

The Spaniard is not a marvel of patience and perseverance; and when, with this fact in mind, we learn that the attendance at these courses has grown from a hundred or two the first year to twelve or fifteen hundred in 1909-10, it seems clear that the lectures are accomplishing something of substantial good. It is true that in the sense which the English universities have given the phrase, what is being done at Oviedo is not university extension at all; but it is possible that these lectures and classes are bringing some starved souls quite as valuable aid as an A.B. or a diploma. There is something pathetic as well as inspiring in the thought of these poorly paid upholders of the torch of learning in an illiterate country and their sturdy effort to spread the light beyond the walls of their own little institution; and it is comforting to know that the effort is being crowned with success.

ROY TEMPLE HOUSE

NORMAN, OKLAHOMA

#### HOME SCHOOLS

Scattered here and there in the public-school system of America are schools bearing a new message in education. These are known as "home schools," and may be looked upon as the most hopeful spots in modern secondary education for girls.

That a more intelligent supervision and care of the home is necessary in America is recognized by all most closely in touch with our present social conditions. The weaknesses and dangers of our civilization may be traced to the home, or, more hopefully expressed, the remedy for the weaknesses and dangers of our social and industrial structure lies in the home. Farsighted settlement workers have been putting forth effort along this line for many years, but it is only within the past few months, one might almost say, that this responsibility has been recognized by the public schools. The enlargement of the functions of the public schools goes on with such amazing rapidity that the "visions" of superintendents, principals, and teachers become facts almost before the public has recognized the presence of a new demand and a new responsibility. So it is not surprising that in a night, as

it were, housecraft schools should have sprung up in Los Angeles, New York, Providence, and Boston, and here and there in the cities of the Middle West. The lines of development in these various cities differ with the needs of the locality, but all have as their motive a more complete, thorough, and rational training of girls in all matters pertaining to home-making.

In Los Angeles, in connection with the Utah Street School, which is in an almost foreign neighborhood, is one of the most fascinating and picturesque home schools in America. The children in that district are chiefly Spanish, Italian, and Russian, many possessing a rare foreign beauty. The Russian girls all wear the little shawls over their heads, many of these decorative garments being very gay and elaborately embroidered, and all the children wear the plain, full skirts of gay-colored cottons, and low slippers and bright hose. There is a large school building for the regular academic work, and in the same yard are bungalows for other uses. There is one bungalow for the Sloyd, one for the sewing, and one for the home school. Besides, there is a day nursery for babies whose mothers must go out to work by the day. The home school is a new five-room bungalow built for the purpose. It is attractively furnished, and two of the teachers live there. The older girls of the school come over in groups to do the work; they make the beds in the morning, wash the dishes, and clean the house. Another group comes over and prepares the luncheon, ten of the teachers having luncheon there, and another group in the afternoon clears off the luncheon, washes the dishes, and does any other necessary housekeeping. The girls are also taught laundry work. In warm, bright, sunny California, this home-school bungalow is particularly attractive, with these pleasant girls in their clean, bright frocks slipping in and out about their work.

Although New England has been called a little slow in trying new educational ventures, yet no other American city has so thoroughly tested the value of continuation schools as has Boston. Continuation classes in dry goods, in shoe and leather work, in banking, in salesmanship, and in metal work have been tried and established as a valuable part of the Boston school system. The latest continuation course to be established is that of home-making, conducted in the North End of Boston, in the North Bennet Street Industrial School. The rooms were remodeled to meet home conditions, and about twenty different firms are allowing small bands of their girls, perhaps numbering fifteen, to leave their work for two hours twice a week to attend these classes in housecraft. The approval of this plan by the factory-owners is evidenced by their willingness to pay the girls their regular wages, notwithstanding the four hours each week spent in studying home-making. These classes offer thirty-two two-hour lessons, and include housekeeping, cooking, the selection of proper foods, the planning of household furnishings, and training as to the suitable selection of color and design in dress. The instruction is conversational and informal, and the girls, many of whom expect soon to be married, take up the work seriously and intelligently. The employers

have been quick to realize that this break in the routine of the factory does not tend to lower the grade of work done by the girls, but rather to raise it, and all concede that some form of self-improvement must be offered girls after leaving the public schools. The fatigue which comes after work-hours often makes it impossible for the wage-earning girl to avail herself of the opportunities offered in the night schools. So these continuation schools, which provide vocational training during working hours, are meeting a new educational demand.

In Providence, Rhode Island, is another most interesting home school, quite unique among schools of this character in preserving most perfectly the simple, industrious atmosphere of a well managed home. On entering, one does not have the feeling of visiting a school, but rather of being entertained in some private home where all the members of the family are busy with some agreeable domestic task. Mr. Randall J. Condon, the superintendent of the Providence schools, held such a clear and concrete conception as to the possibilities of a housecraft school for girls that it has been possible for broad and varied activities to crystallize in a perfectly natural and simple way in this Providence home school. Although under the regular public-school system, and offering free instruction, yet this home school is in no way formally affiliated with the grammar or high schools. The work is not required, neither do the children receive credits for it, and all attending do so voluntarily. This idea of Mr. Condon's, to keep the home school free from the routine and harness of the regular public-school work, has done much toward making it possible to develop there the free and informal atmosphere of home life.

The building selected is a commonplace five-room flat situated in one of the poorer and more thickly settled districts of the city. The arrangement of rooms is well adapted to the use, including a small hall, living-room, sewing-room, dining-room, kitchen, bedroom, bath-room, and a basement laundry. Since the opening of the school, the first week in December, the girls have done all the work of the home except caring for the furnace. They have built the fire in the kitchen range, and have done all the cleaning and laundry work, made all the aprons used in cooking, serving, and cleaning, and have hemmed all the dish towels and table linen.

The work in this school has been divided into three courses, the house-work, the cooking, and the sewing. A comprehensive course in housework has been carried out, including (1) bedmaking, and all that pertains to the hygienic care of the sleeping room; bed-making for the sick, and the care of the home sickroom; (2) cleaning, sweeping, dusting, and care of floors, rugs, curtains, draperies, etc.; (3) laundry work; (4) the serving of meals; (5) informal talks on hygiene; (6) informal talks on books. The cooking has been planned to give a knowledge of the proper preparation of simple home food and the serving of it to a small family. Wholesome and well balanced combinations of food suitable for breakfast, luncheon or supper, and dinner have been prepared and served, and special attention has been given to the making

of good bread, biscuits, muffins, and other essentials in home cooking. Since in every home the kitchen exists to provide for the dining-room, there has been daily co-operation between the cooking and housework classes, and so far as possible all the articles cooked in the kitchen have been served in the dining-room. This has given practice in many ways of serving, as well as in table manners, and has given the cooking classes experience in the punctual and appetizing preparation of food. The sewing-course aims to give the girl a knowledge of how to make simple garments, aprons, sheets, and pillow-cases, how to hem table linen, and how to make inexpensive articles for home-adornment.

This work in housecraft, although elastic and meeting more individual needs than the rigid demands of a class, is so planned as to offer a two-year course for the older girls and a three-year course for the younger ones.

With all the varied interests pursued at the Providence home school, no effort has been made to compete in any way with the technical and trade schools, or any other institutions where industrial work can be better done, but rather to preserve the simple, homelike character of the work, and to stimulate and cultivate in the girls, so far as possible, a love for household duties. As the afternoon classes are composed chiefly of grammar-school children, and the evening classes of working girls, a wide opportunity is offered through the home school of reaching and influencing, in an intimate way, young people from many different walks of life.

Regarding the work of all home-making schools, it may be said that what sometimes appears to be a distaste for the duties of motherhood grows largely out of the fact that the interests of the girl of today have been transferred from the home to other centers of activity. Her wage-earning pursuits are not carried on in her home, neither do her pleasures center there. The office, the club, the shop, the dance-hall, and a score of other associations have estranged her sympathies and tastes from the home environment. Woman is instinctively creative, and this instinct expresses itself, biologically, in the function of motherhood. The natural and normal outlet for creative self-expression is the bearing and rearing of children and the building-up of the home and the home life. So to every girl, in whatever walk of life, should be given the training and education which will awaken her enthusiasm and enchain her interest in the vocation of home-making. And the precepts taught, and the ideals held out to her as to the scope of the home, must be alluring, ever-growing ones, including all the essentials of a progressive life. The home must grow to house the enlarging activities and responsibilities of woman that all her most vital interests may focus within the home, and give to her a growing ideal of the responsibility, the dignity, and the beauty of life, that becomes the "vision" for all humanity.

ADA WILSON TROWBRIDGE

THE HOME SCHOOL  
PROVIDENCE, RHODE ISLAND

## ADMISSION TO COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*To the Editor of the "School Review":*

SIR: On p. 485 of the issue of the *School Review* for September, 1912, appears a table giving the requirements for admission to the departments of literature, science, and the arts in twenty-five colleges and universities in the United States. I notice that opposite the name of Columbia you give as the usual mode of admission, "certificate." By referring to our catalogues you will find this to be erroneous.

FRANK D. FACKENTHAL, *Secretary*

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

September 20

*To the Editor of the "School Review":*

SIR: The criticism has been made by one of the administrative officers of Columbia University that in the brief article entitled "Entrance Requirements in Twenty-five Colleges and Universities" which appeared in the September issue of the *School Review* the usual mode of admission to Columbia is erroneously given as by certificate. The writer of that article is glad to make due apologies if the statement is, as alleged, incorrect. Necessity for brevity forced him to speak somewhat dogmatically, and the desire to make only a dual classification of the college requirements led him to adopt as the distinguishing terms "admission by certificate" and "admission by examination." No doubt, in the case of Columbia a juster characterization would be: admission by a modified examination plan; or, admission by a modified use of the certificate plan.

The writer was led to classify Columbia as he did because of the interpretations made by Professor James R. Angell in his article in the *School Review* for March, 1912 (p. 145). In that article Mr. Angell characterizes the mode of admission to Columbia University as "a denaturized examination system." "Under this system," he says, "a candidate goes through the motions of an examination, but after he has completed them a special committee or a special officer, considering the results of the examination in conjunction with all the data available from the school and elsewhere, may grant him entrance although he has failed in the examination, or reject him although he has passed . . . [and] the candidate knows in advance that failure in the examination will not necessarily exclude him from the kingdom of collegiate heaven."

The examination at Columbia, according to this interpretation, merely puts into the hands of the administrative officers "a mass of facts bearing on particular cases," but does not make admission depend on an examination.

To the present writer the Columbia plan as described by Mr. Angell employs the *principle* of the certificate system, whether called by that name or not. He leaves the reader, therefore, to classify Columbia as his judgment may decide.

CALVIN O. DAVIS

THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

October 1

## BOOK REVIEWS

*Non-Euclidean Geometry: A Critical and Historical Study of Its Development.*

By ROBERTO BONOLA. Translated by H. S. CARSLAW. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co., 1912. Pp. xii+268. \$2.00.

Few, if any, of the modern developments of mathematics have struck the popular imagination in so pronounced a fashion as non-euclidean geometry and, perhaps we may say, deservedly so. For the discussion, which has clustered around this subject, in which great mathematicians, philosophers, and physicists have taken active part, has finally resulted, in our day, in a clear appreciation of the nature of such a mathematical science as geometry. Bonola's book is, therefore, an admirable introduction, not only to non-euclidean geometry, but to the vast domain of all of those important and fascinating discussions which are concerned with the foundations of mathematics.

The historical method of presentation, adopted by the author, is particularly well fitted for a treatment of this subject. The earliest commentators of Euclid found it impossible to accept his treatment of parallel lines with quite the same degree of approbation which they willingly extended to the rest of his geometry, and for more than two thousand years countless efforts were made to *prove* the fifth postulate upon which his theory of parallels was based.

When Saccheri (1667-1733) attempted to prove the necessity of Euclid's assumption by the method of *reductio ad absurdum*, he was on the threshold of the new science, which was not, however, finally entered until the days of J. Bolyai (1802-60) and Lobatschewsky (1793-1856). The history of the slow growth of this theory is most fascinating, and is well and accurately related in Bonola's work. A full appreciation of the later developments of non-euclidean geometry, associated with the names of Riemann, Beltrami, Cayley, Klein, Lie, Helmholtz, Clifford, Poincaré, and many others, requires a larger knowledge of advanced mathematics than Bonola wishes to presuppose. He does not, however, on that account, neglect to speak of these matters. He attempts, in a very satisfactory way, to make his readers acquainted with the general drift of these more modern investigations, explaining the theories in a semi-popular fashion and giving the more seriously inclined an opportunity to get into contact with the literature of the subject.

The translation is well done, although a few "idioms" of a decided Italian turn seem to have crept into the English version. For instance, we hear frequently (cf. p. 6) of two lines which "are not able to meet." It seems to be nearly impossible to preserve the instinct for idiomatic English while translating from a foreign language.

*Lectures on Fundamental Concepts of Algebra and Geometry.* By J. W. YOUNG.

Prepared for publication with the co-operation of W. W. DENTON. With a note on the growth of algebraic symbolism by U. G. MITCHELL. New York, Macmillan, 1911. Pp. vi+247. \$1.60.

Never, in the opinion of the reviewer, has such a clear and authoritative exposition of the fundamental notions of mathematics been presented to the general public. There are two very good reasons for this. In the first place, although the notions of

elementary algebra and geometry have their origin in hoary antiquity and have been discussed scientifically for more than twenty centuries, it was reserved for the last few decades actually to supply us with a clear insight into the nature of the foundation of mathematics. Thus, the subject of these lectures, in spite of its long history, is fresh and modern. In the second place, there are few authors who, like John Wesley Young, combine the power of clear and simple exposition with profound insight and knowledge of the subject. The result of this fortunate combination, in the present instance, is a work popular in the best sense of the word, which enables the layman to gain an adequate idea of what is meant by the foundation of mathematical science, to acquire quite a little information in regard to some of the more important parts of the superstructure, and to survey intelligently the whole field of mathematics, so far as this may be done without intensive study.

These "Lectures" were originally delivered in the summer session of the University of Illinois in 1909, and are particularly valuable to teachers of mathematics in secondary schools and colleges, as well as to all persons interested in an attempt to define the proper sphere of deductive reasoning.

E. J. WILCZYNSKI

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*The Vocational Guidance of Youth.* By MEYER BLOOMFIELD. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1911. Pp. xvi+124. \$0.60.

A daring and adolescent optimism is required if we are to believe in the possibility of realizing the aims set forth in this addition to the Riverside Monographs. In broad outline, the ideal of the advocates of systematic "vocational guidance" is to fit the annual output of impulsive, mobile American youth into those occupations which are best suited to the tastes and capacities of each boy and girl. Competent advice is to be procurable whether the student leaves school early or advances in the educational scheme. Such advice is not to be left loosely to well-meaning parents, to teachers of limited outlook, or to self-made men who began their careers as messenger boys and urge everyone to go and do likewise. The "help wanted" column of the evening newspaper is no longer to be the sole refuge for the thousands of children who throw aside their books and enter the world of wage-earning. The responsibility of the school is not to end with the teaching of subjects; the school must bridge the gap between its training and the life it is preparing for. Although the pinch of the problem at present is the taking care of the fourteen-to-sixteen-year olds who leave school at the minimum point, the adjustment of child to occupation and occupation to child is to extend to all sorts of occupations—"positions," trades, and professions; perhaps we shall be obliged to oversee the fortunes of the older boys and girls up to the early twenties. Mr. Rowntree's recent study of unemployment in York has convincing data on the after-school history of boys from families in straitened circumstances: he shows how idleness and absence of control and training result in misfits and unemployables. In high schools and colleges the problem of adjustment is no less apparent.

There are difficulties theoretical and practical. Is vocational direction within the scope of the school? Can it be done? The gauntlet of criticism must be run. There are manufacturers who still demand the dexterity of childhood under the guise of helping poor widows and offering a chance to begin at the bottom of the ladder; there are school people who contend that remoteness from future practical pursuits

is indispensable to the spiritual health of the student; there are persons who cry paternalism and reduction of family responsibility. It must be admitted that Mr. Bloomfield's book deals largely with general underlying aims and possibilities; that the results achieved in Germany, in Scotland, in England, and in the United States are relatively meager and by no means answer all our perplexities when we contemplate starting an experiment in our own town; it is certain that some advocates of this reform understand the psychology of constructiveness and the occupations more intimately than the needs of the industrial world and the good and bad social influences acting upon wage-earners. The enthusiasts for vocational adjustment are in danger of forgetting some important economic facts. If they presume to connect school and job, they are somewhat responsible for the educative character of the latter. It may be that they must advocate an increase and standardization of wages both for skilled and for unskilled labor on the ground that sufficient wages are essential if the school is to perform its function. It may be that some occupations now in good repute should be declared illegal for children, on the ground that they are dangerous to health and morals. A closer acquaintance with economic phenomena may serve to revise the arguments which some advocates of industrial training use. An increased output of goods, holding our own with the artisan of France, extending the world-market, and superior "business efficiency" are not in themselves final bases of proof. When occupational training becomes more nearly universal it is not certain that we can use the argument of steady remunerative work for all boys who will become technically proficient. Hence the necessity of social legislation to protect skilled and unskilled alike. These items add more evidence in support of those who believe that teachers should "enter politics" and become more instrumental than heretofore in shaping the curriculum and management of the school and in determining the policies of the state. A splendid consequence of the agitation in favor of vocational guidance may be that more and more we shall grow accustomed to the consideration of "progressive" legislation from the point of view of the school and that the voice of the teacher shall be distinctly heard in the land.

The writer of this volume is to be commended for holding fast to the economic environment of the city child. He contends that our methods of dealing with the difficulties of guidance must be harmonious with democratic attitudes and institutions. A system run from the top, however well adapted to other countries, will not do here. Yet he urges that democratic freedom does not imply the chaos of dumping a huge annual load of poorly prepared adolescents upon an economic order so unresponsive that it is not yet human enough for adults. Mr. Bloomfield argues that our education should give adaptability and social imagination to youth, and that the school should connect with a society so organized as to be flexible to the requirements of youth.

There are seven chapters with the following titles: chap. i, "The Choice of a Life-Work and Its Difficulties"; chap. ii, "Vocational Chaos and Its Consequences"; chap. iii, "Beginnings in Vocational Guidance"; chap. iv, "Vocational Guidance in the Public Schools"; chap. v, "The Vocational Counselor"; chap. vi, "Some Cautions in Vocational Guidance"; chap. vii, "Social and Economic Gains through Vocational Guidance." An appendix contains a selected bibliography on vocational education and guidance.

The distinction implied throughout the discussion between the ordinary employment agency and a vocational-guidance bureau operated as a part of the public-school system deserves mention. Professor Hanus, in an introductory statement,

says that "vocational guidance does not mean helping boys and girls to find work, but to find the kind of work they are best fitted by nature and training to do well. It does not mean prescribing a vocation. It does mean bringing to bear on the choice of a vocation organized information and organized common-sense." A private employment agency, as a rule, is run for profit. It is not interested in reducing unemployment. It is secondarily concerned with the ultimate welfare of its applicants; to meet an urgent immediate need of finding employment is its care. Its "follow-up" system is related to fees.

A bureau managed by public authority would have the perspective and sympathy which belong to the school. It would study and advise the child while in school; a competent counselor under the employ of the community would undertake to secure the co-operation of teacher, child, parent, and employer. Personal relations would be established, and the child's career would be directed in the years following withdrawal from school. A public bureau would have exact, comprehensive knowledge of industrial conditions and opportunities, and would adapt pupil and curriculum thereto. It would be remedial, investigatory, thorough, and anticipative of the happiness of the next generation.

It cannot be said that a satisfactory stage has been reached in the history of the vocational-guidance movement, yet the reader is impressed by the outcome of experiments in Scotland and England (chaps. iii and iv). The details of the Edinburgh plan will be illuminating to the American reader, for they, along with the material given in the reports and handbooks of the English Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment committees, show a care and elaboration of method which we have not exhibited. However, the record of the progress of the movement in Boston and other American cities is encouraging.

At this time there is needed a careful study of the situation in various localities and the working-out of methods of keeping data and handling children and employers. Things are being started in the West; it is probable that in the near future the schools of Chicago and Cincinnati will have something to contribute. Mr. Bloomfield's survey of a wide field will undoubtedly stimulate a criticism of the theory and practice of vocational adjustment and suggest experiments in communities big and little.

ERNEST L. TALBERT

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE  
CHICAGO

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*All the Children of All the People: A Study of the Attempt to Educate Everybody.*

By WILLIAM HAWLEY SMITH. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. x+346.  
\$1.50 net.

There are human beings born "long" and human beings born "short" mentally as well as physically, and the physical peculiarities are the cause of mental peculiarities. Our schools are filled with children of widely divergent powers and aptitudes, and yet we are, for the most part, still attempting to educate them all in the same things and in the same manner. Fifty years of experience have proved that this attempt is bound to result in failure. What we need is a system which will educate the individual child in the peculiar capabilities on which his life-usefulness is to be founded. "This, then, is what an education really is; namely, a training for life that will fit the individual to do well the thing he undertakes, no matter what that thing may be." The state should educate the child who is to be an artisan, a mechanic,

a domestic, or a commercial employee of any kind, as truly as it should educate the child destined for the intellectual occupations.

Mr. Smith is an individualist of no unpronounced sort, and it is no accident that he makes Walt Whitman his authority. His book, nevertheless, is full of sensible talk ("talk" describes its direct and vivacious style), and deals with a wide range of topics. It would be more effective if it were both less comprehensive and less diffuse. It ought not to require a hundred pages to lead us to see that children are uneven intellectually, or that physique is at bottom responsible for the fact in many cases.

There is no one who will not agree that the ideal presented by the author of *The Evolution of Dodd* is a noble ideal—and that it will be a long time before all the parents of all the children will go down deep enough into their pockets to make possible its realization; for its realization would mean the addition of armies of teachers and barracks by the block. If his ideal is realized in the case of the non-intellectual children—and progress at present seems to lie in this direction—we may rightly fear that it will be even less perfectly realized than now in the case of the intellectual. If the state cannot or will not educate all the children of all the people in all the ways that their infinite variety demands, which of the children of all the people is it going to regard as most worth its while to educate, the non-intellectual or the intellectual? Or where is it going to lay the greater emphasis, on the non-intellectual or on the intellectual? In attempting to answer the question, no one should confuse intellectuality with the possession of wealth. Most of our intellectually apt children are of humble parentage.

GRANT SHOWERMAN

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

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*Third Year Latin for Sight Reading: Selections from Sallust and Cicero.* Edited by JOHN EDMUND BARSS. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 123. \$0.40.

"These selections from Cicero and Sallust are intended to provide material for rapid or sight reading for classes which have read the *Manilian Law* and the *Archias*, and the first and third Catiline orations. The total amount of text is equal to about two and one-half times that of the second and fourth Catiline orations, thus allowing a fairly wide freedom of choice for teachers who wish to complete the quantitative requirement of the new definitions."

The text includes a generous amount from Sallust's *Catiline*, giving the history of the conspiracy from its beginning to the death of the leader; about one-third of the second and fourth Catiline orations; an account of the conduct and crimes of Verres in Sicily; the counsel's statement of the facts in the defense of Roscius; eight of Cicero's letters; the most interesting portions of the *De Senectute*; and, finally, two extracts from Sallust's *Bellum Iugurthinum*.

The amount of text is ample, and the subject-matter sufficiently diversified to give the interest so commonly demanded from the standpoint of both teacher and pupil. This is accomplished in brief form by a process of excellent selection, and a condensation effected by the omission of such parts as would move slowly and delay the recital.

There is, of course, no vocabulary, but brief notes are occasionally written, and the words and phrases that would cause undue difficulty are admirably translated in

footnotes. A good introduction of four pages on "How to Read at Sight" will be found helpful to the pupil, and a time-saver to the teacher, who will be relieved of the necessity of going over this topic painfully with a class. A brief sketch of word-formation in three pages is a convenient summary of the usual cumbersome material found in grammars. This is probably included because the subject is so commonly neglected, and is thoroughly deserving of attention.

We have this year devoted much attention to reading at sight in our Freshman class at Dartmouth College, but our experiment would have been much more successful, had enthusiastic teachers in schools had a book of this nature to help train their pupils in the true method of reading. May the book live long and prosper.

*Cicero: Six Orations.* Edited by J. Remsen Bishop, Frederick Alwin King, and Nathan Wilbur Helm. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. 164+95+100. \$1.00.

As a piece of bookmaking this edition is self-condemned. The editors had already published an edition of ten orations, and have now merely reprinted six of them. But the preface and the introduction are written to accompany the larger edition, sometimes being quite inappropriate to the smaller one. The vocabulary of the larger edition is printed *in toto*. Nor is an explanation of the real situation, nor of these discrepancies, anywhere given. One suspects that the publishers could foresee that an edition with ten orations would prove a financial failure, and so adopted this expedient to reimburse themselves. But the good book-making should appear in the book that will reach the larger number of readers, and the bad book-making in that which will reach few; certainly not the reverse.

In view of this situation the reviewer is scarcely in the frame of mind to estimate adequately the value of the present volume to a pupil. The teacher is placed in the embarrassing position of being obliged to tell the pupils at times to omit certain pages, as they are appropriate to the larger book, not to the smaller. One would feel disposed to use the larger book, if it is an exceptionally fine one, otherwise to select one of the other well-edited books that are complete in themselves.

What may have been written about the larger edition I do not know. I have seen no reviews, and shall therefore give only a few impressions. The sketch of Cicero's Life is of the usual kind. Lengthy, and good, articles appear on the Roman body politic, Roman religious officials, the Roman forum, and the oration in the time of Cicero. I am not sure but this is overdone; the essays contain more than is needed for the understanding of the six (and probably of the ten) orations. The bibliography is sufficiently large to justify itself. I have already indicated in the *School Review* my objections to a smaller bibliography. The vocabulary is straightforward, but one misses the translations of frequently occurring phrases. The notes are also simple, with adequate references to grammars.

One is at a loss to decide what features the book possesses which justify adding another to the long list of American editions of Cicero's orations. The one thing in the book that sets it off from other editions is the series of essays. That which deals with the system of government is full of material, and good material; but, strangely enough, it is quite lacking in any attempt to describe the working of the courts of law, although most of the orations included have to do with legal questions or cases at law. There is nothing to show the procedure in the case against Archias;

and, still more important, there is nothing to show how far Cicero was from conducting the trial for treason in the ordinary way. However, this is a fault that may be found with all editions.

This series of essays is the novel feature of the book and perhaps makes it worth while.

R. W. HUSBAND

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

*Second Year Latin for Sight Reading.* Edited by ARTHUR L. JANES. New York: American Book Co., 1911. Pp. 238. \$0.40.

*Selections from Caesar.* Edited for Sight Translation in Secondary School. By HARRY F. TOWLE and PAUL R. JENKS. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1912. Pp. xxxi+109. \$0.24.

The purpose of these two books is to furnish material for sight reading from the texts commonly assigned for study in the second year. The authors believe that the ability to read Latin of moderate difficulty rather than the mastery of a large amount of syntax should be the result sought in the work of the first two years.

The selections by Mr. Janes contain parts of Books iv, v, vi, and vii, of the *Gallic War*, a large part of book iii of the *Civil War*, and six "Lives" from Nepos. There is a vocabulary at the foot of the page, as well as brief notes. The book is attractive in appearance, but the illustrations seem to add little to its interest or value for the purpose for which it is intended. The detailed description of the siege-works at Alesia might well have been omitted or have been given in English, as is done by Messrs. Towle and Jenks. The inclusion of selections from Nepos is to be commended. Few high schools give any place to Nepos in the regular work of the Latin course, and it is desirable that the pupil should at least know of the existence of some other author than Caesar at the end of his second year.

The selections from Caesar by Messrs. Towle and Jenks are preceded by a vocabulary list containing all the words in the first two books of the *Gallic War* as given in the Lodge *Vocabulary of High School Latin*, a chapter on word formation, and a brief summary of Books iii and iv of the *Gallic War*. The text comprises the greater part of Book v, the introductory chapters and the campaign about Alesia from Book vii, and a brief selection from Book viii of the *Gallic War* and part of Book i of the *Civil War*. Selections from Books iv, v, and vi of the *Gallic War* containing Caesar's description of the Gauls, Germans, and Britons are also included. No vocabulary is given, but the footnotes consist almost entirely of translations.

The experiment of giving the first part of the second year to more intensive drill on forms and vocabulary and employing either of these books for the latter part would be worth trying.

*A Consecutive Vocabulary of Caesar.* By T. HOWARD WINTERS. Ceredo, W. Va.: Southern Classical Press, 1912. Pp. vi+146.

The vocabulary of the first four books of the *Gallic War* is given in consecutive arrangement by chapters, with the exception of a small number of words which the pupil is supposed to have had in his first year's work, and which are arranged alphabetically at the first of the book. Words which the author thinks deserving of special attention are repeated when they recur until the opportunity has been given for drill.

Words occurring in the orations of Cicero commonly read and in the first six books of the *Aeneid* are specially marked.

The book should prove serviceable, and may well find a place on the teacher's desk.

HARRY F. SCOTT

THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO

*The Recitation.* By GEORGE HERBERT BETTS. (The Riverside Educational Monographs.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1911. Pp. xi+121. \$0.60.

The author first discusses three purposes of the recitation: "testing," "teaching," "drill." In the second chapter four "special forms of method" are presented: "the question-and-answer," "the topical," "the lecture," "the written recitation." Chapter iii treats of four "fundamental principles" in the art of questioning: "freedom from textbooks," "unity," "clearness," "definiteness." These are followed by "secondary principles," "of hardly less importance." The chapter on conditions necessary to a good recitation points out many details of class-management. The final chapter, on the assignment of the lesson, emphasizes the need of teachers being prepared at least one lesson in advance of their class, and then notes eight "principles governing the assignment."

The book is so simple in its thought, so definitely outlined, and so clearly written, that it will serve as a good primer on method for the inexperienced teacher unacquainted with pedagogical literature.

It must, however, be said that this book belongs to the educational literature of fifteen or twenty years ago, and has already been presented in such books as E. E. White's *The Art of Teaching* and Joseph Baldwin's *School-Management and Methods*. The editor of the Riverside Educational Monographs rightly says in his introduction to this volume, "We need a more flexible way of thinking of the recitation"; but it is much to be feared that this presentation of details already so hackneyed in educational literature will have the undesirable effect of mechanizing the recitation in the hands of the young teachers.

Two questions are suggested by this book. First: Does the teaching profession, at this stage of its development, need such a primer on methods and management? Second: Should an educational monograph treat briefly a wide range of topics, or discuss more intensively a topic of more limited scope? But this book will be popular with teachers in the elementary schools and will help many of them.

J. L. MERIAM

THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION  
THE UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI

*A School Chemistry.* By F. L. R. WILSON and G. W. HEDLEY. Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1912. Pp. xix+572. 4s. 6d.

"This book appears as the result of a demand for a somewhat shorter course of school chemistry than the authors' *Elementary Chemistry: Progressive Lessons in Experiment and Theory*." The latter work, which appeared in 1905, or, at least, was first used by the reviewer in that year, is probably too little known to teachers in this country. It embodies, as does the work before us, much that is best in the methods of teaching chemistry that have been developed in Britain as an outcome of

the heuristic movement and the preaching of Armstrong. The authors' object is "to provide a school course of practical training in chemistry, suitable for those studying the subject as an integral part of their general education, and at the same time to lay a solid foundation for such as may require to specialize in it later. The ultimate object of the authors is the cultivation of a scientific habit of mind in the pupils through the medium of chemistry, rather than the mere acquisition of the facts of the science." It must be confessed that high-school teaching of chemistry in this country aims chiefly at presenting and imparting the facts in the form most easily assimilable—a perfectly legitimate aim in the professional training of a future chemist.

To utilize the teaching of chemistry in the high school primarily as a means of training in scientific method calls for very much more energy and logic and scientific character in the teacher. Therefore, feel the authors, "too little systematic effort has been made to induce pupils to think for themselves, and insufficient care taken to relieve the teacher from the immensely increased burden of work which is involved in the method of individual investigation." For this reason, they aim to give such clear directions for the performance of experiments and the observation of results as shall be intelligible without further explanation; to devise definite means of inducing thought about the work done; and to afford opportunity for applying original thought to the solution of problems. In carrying out their plan, they have thought well to begin many chapters with a list of preliminary questions to be answered from general knowledge; after the practical work, a further list of questions serves to elicit the principal conclusions. To characterize the type of these questions would require too extensive quotation; but they endeavor to bring it about automatically that, even under the most wooden of teachers, the pupils will be compelled to think scientifically about everything they do. Frequent problems are inserted, to exercise the power of application of quicker pupils and to keep the members of a given class fairly well together.

The first 74 pages deal with the preliminaries of manipulation, including practice in simple quantitative work; pp. 75-144 present, in a study of combustion in air, a type of the general method of chemical investigation suitable for beginners; pp. 145-232 deal with classification of materials, the nature of oxides, water, and acids, leading up to the constitution of salts; the atomic theory is first introduced at p. 262, chemical equations at p. 277, systematic discussion of non-metals at p. 287, and of metals at p. 453.

The adoption of such a text as this one in schools in this country would result in a diminution, no doubt, of results in the more immediately tangible but evanescent form of chemical facts imbibed; but in an increase in capacity and power for scientific observation and thinking which, like "culture," is less tangible but relatively permanent.

ALAN W. C. MENZIES

oberlin college

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*Some Fundamental Verities in Education.* By MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN.  
Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1911. Pp. xix+118. \$1.00.

This work deals with fundamentals in that it goes back to motor and sense training. Part II, which is entitled "Art Culture and Art Expression," gives an extended account with illustrations of experiments in art work with children in the Ethical Culture School during the nineties. The author's conclusions as to "Interpretation and Symbolism" and "Artistic Culture Epochs" seem somewhat extreme.

There is little material with reference to the later significance of this elementary period, and its experiences. The fourfold introduction by Messrs. Bolton, Chambers, Poland, and Horne express well-merited appreciation of the pioneer work done by Dr. Groszmann.

*The Women of Tomorrow.* By WILLIAM HARD. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co., 1911. Pp. xi+211.

In the flood of new books dealing directly with education it will be easy to overlook this contribution to one of our urgent problems. Mr. Hard has made a serious study of present tendencies in the education and life of women and has written a valuable book in an interesting manner. His chapter on "Learning for Earning" makes available a view of technical training from Colonial days to the work of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls and Simmons College.

Teachers who are following conventional courses as well as those more progressive need the experience of seeing their charges in the light of the problems they must meet—the postponement of marriage, the preliminary period of self-support, the new training for motherhood, the problem of leisure, the opportunity for civic service to which the author devotes his successive chapters.

*Saleswomen in Mercantile Stores.* By ELIZABETH BUTLER. New York: Charities Publication Committee. \$1.00 (paper \$0.75).

This study of saleswomen in Baltimore affords an illuminating view of the occupation entered by many of our schoolgirls. School authorities need the results of a series of such surveys in order to plan a more effective social curriculum. Of direct help will be the accounts of schools for salesmanship in Boston and elsewhere.

*The Status of the Teacher.* By ARTHUR C. PERRY, JR. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1912. Pp. xii+78. \$0.35.

Dr. Suzzallo in the editor's introduction to this number in the Riverside Monograph Series calls attention to "four major elements which directly condition classroom activity: (1) the teacher's personality, (2) the course of study, (3) the child, and (4) social ends; each in turn has come into focus to receive an emphasis which, temporarily at least, has subordinated other factors, even those that had been thrust emphatically into professional consciousness during the previous decades." "For the purpose of raising to full consciousness the status of the teacher, it is necessary to know upon what traditional and rational grounds the teacher enters upon the performance of his functions; to know just where his powers begin and end; to know just where are the sanctions for everything he does."

Dr. Perry gives us information on the subject under the heads of the authority, the responsibility, and the profession of the teacher. His statements will be helpful, although one could wish that he had grappled with the problem somewhat more fundamentally along lines laid down for instance in Henderson's *Principles of Education*. The part the teachers of the country will play in determining its policies of education and the status of their own class is an urgent question and deserves more attention than is given it.

FRANK A. MANNY

THE BALTIMORE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS

## BOOKS RECEIVED

### EDUCATION

*Youth and the Race: A Study in the Psychology of Adolescence.* By EDGAR JAMES SWIFT. New York: Scribners, 1912. Pp. x+342. \$1.50.

*Social Principles of Education.* By GEORGE HERBERT BETTS. New York: Scribner, 1912. Pp. xvii+318.

*Teaching in School and College.* By WILLIAM LYON PHELPS. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xi+186. \$1.00 net.

*Peter Ramus and the Educational Reformation of the Sixteenth Century.* By FRANK PIERREPONT GRAVES. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xi+226. With a portrait. \$1.25 net.

*Grundfragen der Schulorganisation: Eine Sammlung von Reden, Aufsätzen, und Organisationsbeispielen.* Von Georg Kerschensteiner. Dritte, verbesserte Auflage. Leipzig: Teubner, 1912. Pp. vii+338. M. 4.20.

Teachers College Contributions to Education. No. 50. *Admission to College by Certificate.* By JOSEPH LINDSEY HENDERSON. Pp. x+171. \$1.50. No. 53. *Correlations of Mental Abilities.* By BENJAMIN R. SIMPSON. Pp. v+122. \$1.00. New York: Columbia University, 1912.

*Character Building in School.* By JANE BROWNLEE. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1912. Pp. vi+268. \$1.00.

*The Training of Children: A Book for Young Teachers.* By JOHN WIRT DINSMORE. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. 336. \$1.00.

*Professional Distribution of College and University Graduates.* By BAILEY B. BURRITT. (United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1912, No. 19, Whole Number 421.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1912. Pp. 147.

*L'Education en Suisse: Annuaire des écoles, universités, pensionnats, etc.* 8me année. Geneva: Administration (Rue de la Péliserie, 18), 1912. Pp. 731.

*Master Flachsmann (Flachsmann als Erzieher).* A Comedy in Three Acts. By OTTO ERNST. Translated by H. M. BEATTY. New York: Duffield & Co. Pp. 155.

### ENGLISH

*The Essentials of English Composition.* By JAMES WEBER LINN. New York: Scribner, 1912. Pp. xiv+186.

*Illustrated Lessons in Composition and Rhetoric.* By ERLE E. CLIPPINGER. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1912. Pp. xi+371. Illustrated. \$1.00.

*The Applications of Logic: A Textbook for College Students.* By A. T. ROBINSON. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912. Pp. x+219.

*Intercollegiate Debates (Volume II): A Year Book of College Debating, with Records of Questions and Decisions, Specimen Speeches and Bibliographies.* Edited by EGBERT RAY NICHOLS. New York: Hinds, Noble & Eldredge, 1912. Pp. xxv +833. \$2.00.

Masterpieces of the English Drama. General Editor, FELIX E. SCHELLING. *Beaumont and Fletcher.* Edited by FELIX E. SCHELLING. Pp. vi+414. *Christopher*

*Marlowe*. With an Introduction by WILLIAM LYON PHELPS. Pp. v+426. *Webster and Tourneur*. With an Introduction by ASHLEY H. THORNDIKE. Pp. v+464. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Each volume (with frontispiece), \$0.70.

*Atalanta's Race and The Proud King (from "The Earthly Paradise")*. By WILLIAM MORRIS. Edited with an Introduction and Notes for the Use of Schools and Colleges. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912. Pp. xix+60. \$0.35.

*Introduction to Browning: Including Eleven Poems, with Hints for Study*. By ELLA B. HALLOCK. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. v+131. With portrait. \$0.75.

*Questions on Shakespeare*. By ALBERT H. TOLMAN. *I Henry IV*. Pp. ix+57. *The Merchant of Venice*. Pp. ix+59. *The Tempest*. Pp. ix+54. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1912. Each, \$0.17 postpaid.

*Washington's Farewell Address and Webster's First Bunker Hill Oration*. Edited by WILLIAM EDWARD SIMONDS. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1911. Pp. xlv+65. With a portrait.

*Poems and Stories by Bret Harte*. Selected and Edited for Schools and Colleges, with an Introduction. By CHARLES SWAIN THOMAS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1912. Pp. xvii+110. \$0.25.

#### LATIN, FRENCH, AND GERMAN

*A First Latin Reader*. By H. C. NUTTING. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. x+240. Illustrated. \$0.60.

*Le Cid*. Par PIERRE CORNEILLE. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by COLBERT SEARLES. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. xxvii+178. With a portrait.

*First Book in German*. By E. W. BAGSTER-COLLINS. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. ix+342. Illustrated. \$1.10 net.

*Hermann der Cherusker und die Schlacht im teuloburger Walde*. Von FERDINAND GOEBEL. Edited by J. ESSER. (Authorized edition.) New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. ix+163. \$0.35 net.

*Kleines Lesebuch in Lateinschrift (zugleich in der amlichen Schreibung)*. Herausgegeben von WILHELM VIETOR. Leipzig: Teubner, 1912. Pp. viii+49. M. 0.90.

#### HISTORY AND SOCIOLOGY

*Causes and Effects in American History: The Story of the Origin and Development of the Nation*. By EDWIN W. MORSE. New York: Scribner, 1912. Pp. xxvi+302. With illustrations, facsimiles, and maps. \$1.25.

*Indian Sketches: Père Marquette and The Last of the Pottawatomie Chiefs*. By CORNELIA STEKETER HULST. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1912. Pp. ix+113. Illustrated. \$0.60.

*Questions in English History*. By CHARLES W. DISBROW. Utica, N.Y.: L. C. Childs & Son, 1912. Pp. 72.

*No Mummified History in New York Schools*. By ANDREW SLOAN DRAPER. Syracuse, N.Y.: C. W. Bardeen, 1912. Pp. 32.

*The Family in Its Sociological Aspects*. By JAMES QUAYLE DEALEY. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1912. Pp. v+137. \$0.75.

## SCIENCE

*General Science.* By BERTHA M. CLARK. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. 363. Illustrated. \$0.80.

*The Essentials of Physics.* By GEORGE ANTHONY HILL. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. viii+344. Illustrated.

*Elementary Applied Chemistry.* By LEWIS B. ALLYN. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. xi+127. Illustrated.

*Manual of Experimental Botany.* By FRANK OWEN PAYNE. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. 272. Illustrated. \$0.75.

## MATHEMATICS

*The Teaching of Mathematics in Secondary Schools.* By ARTHUR SCHULTZE. New York: Macmillan, 1912. Pp. xxi+370. With diagrams. \$1.25 net.

*Plane and Solid Geometry.* By C. A. HART and DANIEL D. FELDMAN, with the Editorial Co-operation of J. H. TANNER and VIRGIL SNYDER. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. viii+488. Illustrated. \$1.25.

*New Analytic Geometry.* By PERCEY F. SMITH and ARTHUR SULLIVAN GALE. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. x+342. Illustrated.

*Syllabus of Mathematics: A Symposium Compiled by the Committee on the Teaching of Mathematics to Students of Engineering.* Accepted by the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education at the Nineteenth Annual Meeting, held at Pittsburgh, Pa., June, 1911. Ithaca, N.Y.: Office of the Secretary, 1912. Pp. iii+136.

## INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL

*Manual Arts for Vocational Ends.* By FRED D. CRAWSHAW. Peoria, Ill.: The Manual Arts Press, 1912. Pp. 99. \$0.85.

*A Manual of Shoemaking and Leather and Rubber Products.* By WILLIAM H. DOOLEY. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1912. Pp. x+287. Illustrated. \$1.50 net.

*Industrial Drawing for Girls: Design Principles Applied to Dress.* By EDITH CARY HAMMOND. New York: Redfield Bros., 1912. Pp. 103. Illustrated. \$1.50.

*Constructive Carpentry.* By CHARLES A. KING. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. xii+176. Illustrated. \$0.70.

*Inside Finishing.* By CHARLES A. KING. New York: American Book Co., 1912. Pp. xi+227.

*Bookkeeping: Introductory Course.* By GEORGE W. MINER. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. vi+126+xxii. \$0.90.

*Bookkeeping: Complete Course.* By GEORGE W. MINER. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. viii+334+xxxi. \$1.40.

## MUSIC AND VOICE TRAINING

*Songs We Like to Sing.* A Collection of Familiar Songs and Hymns for High Schools and Normal Schools and for Assemblies. Compiled and edited by BIRDIE ALEXANDER. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1912. Pp. 112. \$0.35.

*The Students' Hymnal.* By CHARLES H. LEVERMORE. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. vi+218. \$0.50.

*Voice and Its Natural Development.* By HERBERT JENNINGS. London: George Allen & Co. (New York: Macmillan), 1911. Pp. xvi+220. Fully illustrated by photographs, and drawings by the author. \$1.25 net.

## CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS<sup>1</sup>

IRENE WARREN<sup>2</sup>

Librarian, School of Education, The University of Chicago

BRADFORD, MARY D. The kindergarten and its relation to retardation. *Kind. R.* 23:67-72. (O. '12.)

A study comparing the intelligence, advancement in school, etc., of children with and without kindergarten training.

BRESLICH, ERNST R. Teaching high-school pupils how to study. *School R.* 20:505-15. (O. '12.)

Describes an experiment as to the relative value of the usual form of home-study in mathematics as compared with "supervised study," having as its chief aim the teaching of how to study.

BURNHAM, WILLIAM H. The problems of child hygiene. *Pedagog. Sem.* 10:395-402. (S. '12.)

A survey of the topic.

CIPRIANI, CHARLOTTE J. The use of phonetics and the phonograph in the teaching of elementary French. *School R.* 20:516-25. (O. '12.)

Teaching French as a living language so as to secure right pronunciation and easy understanding of its spoken forms.

DAGGETT, STUART. Method and scope of high school economics. *Hist. Teachers M.* 3:172-76. (O. '12.)

DAVIS, C. O. The history, organization, and administration of the teachers' appointment office of the University of Michigan. *School R.* 20:532-58. (O. '12.)

A very satisfactory presentation of the methods employed in placing their graduating educational workers.

DELL, JOHN A. Some observations on the learning of sensible material. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 3:401-6. (S. '12.)

An experiment upon the influence of sequence in learning unorganized and organized facts.

<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations.—*Atlan.*, Atlantic; *Atlan. Educa. J.*, Atlantic Educational Journal; *Educa.*, Education; *Educa. R.*, Educational Review; *El. School T.*, Elementary School Teacher; *Hist. Teachers M.*, History Teachers Magazine; *J. of Educa. Psychol.*, Journal of Educational Psychology; *Kind. R.*, Kindergarten Review; *Lit. D.*, Literary Digest; *Pedagog. Sem.*, Pedagogical Seminary; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, Popular Science Monthly; *Q.J. of U. of N.D.*, Quarterly Journal of the University of North Dakota; *Relig. Educa.*, Religious Education; *School R.*, School Review; *Sci. Am.*, Scientific American; *Teach. Coll. Rec.*, Teachers College Record; *Voca. Educa.*, Vocational Education.

<sup>2</sup> Annotations by John F. Bobbitt and Frank N. Freeman.

DUFFY, FRANK. Industrial education and what labor unions are doing to promote it. *Voca. Educa.* 2:28-35. (S. '12.)  
 Voices the claim of the industrial worker for a fair share in the training given in the public schools.

GEDDES, JAMES, JR., and TESSON, M. LOUIS. Oral instruction in modern languages. *Educa.* 33:27-35. (S. '12.)  
 Presents briefly a method of oral instruction, and discusses its advantages.

GRiffin, JOSEPH T. Practical illustrations of the law of apperception. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:403-15. (S. '12.)  
 Illustrations and application to general method in the five formal steps and to various school subjects.

GRIGGS, A. O. The pedagogy of mathematics. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:350-75. (S. '12.)  
 A critical study of the methods of teaching mathematics, specially in the early years. With a bibliography.

HENDERSON, CHARLES RICHMOND. To help the helpless child. *World's Work* 24:627-30. (O. '12.)

HICKS, FREDERICK C. Newspaper libraries. *Educa. R.* 44:174-90. (S. '12.)  
 Discusses the libraries found in the newspaper offices of New York City, under the topics: organization, care and use of clippings, bound files of newspapers, and indexing of newspapers.

HILLEGAS, MILO B. A scale for the measurement of quality in English composition by young people. *Teach. Coll. Rec.* 13:1-54. (S. '12.)  
 History in the secondary school. *Hist. Teachers M.* 3:179-83. (O. '12.)

EVANS, ELDON C. The use of the blackboard.

GOODWIN, FRANK P. Social science courses for commercial students.

VIOLETTE, E. M. Setting the problem.

HOLMES, W. H. The Montessori methods. *Educa.* 33:1-10. (S. '12.)  
 A brief statement of the Montessori methods, and a critically fair valuation of them.

How lightning calculators calculate. *Lit. D.* 45:514. (28 S. '12.)

Industrial education in the Philippines. *Science* 36:396-97. (27 S. '12.)

KEYSER, CASSIUS J. The humanization of the teaching of mathematics. *Educa. R.* 44:140-56. (S. '12.)  
 A literary and philosophical idealization of mathematics as it is related to human life.

KLINE, LINUS W. A study in the psychology of spelling. *J. of Educa. Psychology.* 3:381-400. (S. '12.)  
 An experiment to compare the relative efficiency of learning to spell by methods which conform or do not conform to the individual's imagery type.

KUNZ, GEORGE F. Professor Dr. Paul Walden. *Sci. Am.* 107:260. (28 S. '12.)

LADD, A. J. The work of the pioneers. *Q.J. of U. of N.D.* 3:3-30. (O. '12.)

LEAVITT, FRANK M. The need, purpose, and possibilities of industrial education in the elementary school. *El. School T.* 13:80-90. (O. '12.)  
 —. Vocational purpose in the manual training high school, Indianapolis, Indiana. *Voca. Educa.* 2:36-52. (S. '12.)  
 Discusses the vocational possibilities of a typical manual training high school.

MARTIN, E. S. A father to his freshman son. *Atlan.* 110:441-46. (O. '12.)  
A sensible man of the world presents his valuation of the various opportunities of the modern college and its life.

NEWELL, BERTHA PAYNE. Aspects of the first three gifts and some Montessori materials. *Kind. R.* 23:73-79. (O. '12.)  
A discussion of the appropriate age for the use of the first three gifts and of certain of the Montessori materials.

OTIS, ARTHUR S., AND DAVIDSON, PERCY E. The reliability of standard scores in adding ability. *El. School T.* 13:91-105. (O. '12.)

PALMER, LUELLA A. Montessori and Froebelian materials and methods. *El. School T.* 13:66-79. (O. '12.)

PEARL, RAYMOND. The first International Eugenics Congress. *Science* 36:395-96. (27 S. '12.)

PENROSE, STEPHEN B. L. The organization of a standard college. *Educa. R.* 44:110-27. (S. '12.)  
Discusses very briefly faculty organization and administration, and the supervision and direction of student life.

PERRY, ELIZABETH H. A working library for the supervisor of the manual arts. *School Arts M.* 12:132-35. (O. '12.)

PILLSBURY, W. B. Rousseau's contribution to psychology, philosophy, and education. *Pop. Sci. Mo.* 81:331-35. (O. '12.)  
A brief account of Rousseau's mental and moral character and of the influence of his writings.

RANLETT, ALICE. Shall Latin go? *Educa.* 33:11-18. (S. '12.)  
Ridicule for modern progressive educational movements, and an idealization of older ideals.

RICHARDSON, R. F. The learning process in the acquisition of skill. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:376-94. (S. '12.)  
A general discussion of the factors and conditions of learning. With a bibliography.

RIORDON, RAYMOND. How a neighborhood built its own public school and is making it self-maintaining. *Craftsman* 23:69-74. (O. '12.)

SCOON, R. M. Oxford—a contrast. *Educa. R.* 44:157-73. (S. '12.)  
Describes the work at Oxford, and points out its superiority over American education.

SHOWERMAN, GRANT. Clothes and the man. *Educa. R.* 14:109-18. (S. '12.)  
A plea for placing clothes, furniture, and household decorations on a basis of art rather than fashion; literary not educational.

SHULER, ELLIS W. The passing of the recapitulation theory and its misapplication to teaching. *Educa. R.* 44:191-96. (S. '12.)

SMITH, C. ALPHONSO. State history in the public school. *Hist. Teachers M.* 3:176-78. (O. '12.)

SMITH, FRANK WEBSTER. The normal school ideal. *Educa.* 33:19-26. (S. '12.)  
Pleads for a more functional co-ordination of the elements of the normal school curriculum.

SNEDDEN, DAVID. Debatable issues in vocational education. *Voca. Educa.* 2:1-12. (S. '12.)

Enumerates nine generally accepted principles. Discusses six debatable questions: 1. Vocational and liberal education in the same school; 2. Vocational courses possible under school conditions; 3. The period from 14 to 16 years of age; 4. The amount of productive work desirable; 5. Part time work; 6. The program of evening work.

**SNEDDEN, DAVID.** Differentiated programs of study for older children in elementary schools. *Educa. R.* 44:128-39. (S. '12.)

Discusses the training of pupils 12 to 16 years of age.

**SQUIRE, CARRIE RANSOM.** Graded mental tests. Pt. I. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 3:363-80. (S. '12.)

The report of an experiment to determine the normal performance of children of the ages (mental, physiological, and chronological) of six to thirteen in tests of a variety of mental processes.

**STARBUCK, EDWIN D.** Report of the commission appointed in 1911 to investigate the preparation of religious leaders in universities and colleges. *Relig. Educa.* 7:329-48. (O. '12.)

**STEVENS, THOMAS WOOD.** The making of a dramatic pageant. *Atlan. Educa. J.* 8:13-16. (S. '12.)

A description of the nature and method of construction of a dramatic pageant.

**TAYLOR, JOHN ADAMS.** The evolution of college debating. *Q.J. of U. of N.D.* 3:31-46. (O. '12.)

**TROWBRIDGE, ADA WILSON.** The home school of Providence. *Voca. Educa.* 2:13-27. (S. '12.)

Describes a public school in a city flat building, that is both a home and a school, training girls in living fashion for household occupations.

**UEDA, TADAICHI.** The psychology of justice. *Pedagog. Sem.* 19:297-349. (S. '12.)

An account of the various forms of the sentiment of justice with particular reference to the replies to a questionnaire. With a bibliography.

**WIENER, WILLIAM.** Home-study reform. *School R.* 20:526-31. (O. '12.)

Presents arguments for school study periods to fill up the working day, and leave the evening hours free for children as they are for adults.

